

The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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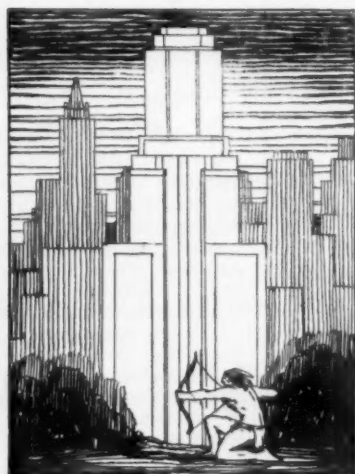
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Revision of World War History

BY ROBERT C. BINKLEY, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

Historical revisions are commonplaces of our intellectual life. They are the usual fruit of historical research in any field; to furnish them is the ordinary duty which historians are trained to do and paid for doing. Enlightened men have nowhere held that the history of the World War was exempt from revision. It was always to be expected that the notions about the war which prevailed while the war was in progress would be modified in time. One of the very phrases which was most common in the presentation of war propaganda: "history will prove this," "history will confirm that," constituted a tacit recognition of the reviewing and revising function of history as applied to the World War.

At the present time the harvest of revisions is beginning to come in. There is a tendency to use the word "revision" as a special term to designate one particular view of a specific problem of war history; namely, that the Allied Powers were "responsible" for "starting" the war. But actual revision is in progress all along the line, and affects all aspects of war history. Coincidentally there is a renewal of popular interest in the World War, as the theatre and the press attest. The situation leads us to inquire what general course revision seems to be taking, and how our new view of the World War is likely to differ from the older views.

We are prone to envisage the progress of the revision of war history as a kind of dragon-slaying adventure wherein successive propaganda-fed war legends are overcome by the champions of truth. This imagery becomes misleading if we attempt to use it in constructing a picture of the rewriting of the history of the war as a whole. The revisions which attract most attention are those in which history controverts what our war-time propagandists predicted it would confirm. But these items give us no adequate clue to the general content of revisionism, for the same judgments which *revise* our own previous views may *confirm* views previously held elsewhere. Thus the thesis on war guilt now championed by Harry Elmer Barnes passes as revision in America, but is in Germany a confirmation of one of the oldest German theories.¹

To the historian the revision of war history involves more than the mere reversing of views which were once officially propagated, more than the exposing of popular errors. The most important revisions are likely to relate to matters upon which there has been no official propaganda, or upon which no well-defined belief has ever existed. Our experience with the rewriting of the history of other great events—the

French Revolution for instance—is more enlightening than the metaphor of the dragon hunt in helping us to envisage what the new conception of the World War is to be.

What light does French Revolution history throw upon World War history? There has been plenty of dragon-slaying in the historiography of the French Revolution. It has been proved, for instance, that the Bastille was not stormed by the partisans of the Third Estate who later assumed responsibility and took credit for having stormed it, but by a mob against which the Third Estate were at the moment arming themselves. This new knowledge has not greatly altered our view of the Revolution, nor has it affected the enthusiasm with which the French continue to celebrate Bastille Day as their national holiday. The more noteworthy changes in our conception of the French Revolution have been changes in evaluation. The Revolution was both an episode in French politics and a movement in the institutional life of Europe. Its significance as a European movement has increased at the expense of its significance as an episode in French politics. Considered as an event in French politics, the Revolution was both a violent change from tradition and a consummation of a traditional policy. It got rid of the monarchy, but it carried on the work of the monarchy in the unification of France. Its continuity with French tradition has come to be regarded as more important than its discontinuity. Meanwhile such colorful events as the Fall of the Bastille, the Tennis Court oath, or the Terror have been slipping into the background. These re-evaluations have resulted in part from the work of historians in gleaning new information from the records of the Revolution, and in part from a change in our practical interest in this great historical event. *It is not to be expected that the substance of war history revision will resemble the revision of French Revolutionary history, but the method is the same.* It will be a matter of verifying and interpreting. There will be a checking of new evidence upon questions of fact, which will increase our store of information on the events of the war, and there will also be re-evaluations and changes of emphasis, so that events which once seemed significant will appear inconsequential, and facts which were once regarded as trivial will assume importance. There will be a hunting down of legends and errors, and there will also be such a shifting of attention that some legends may well be forgotten before they are refuted.

Rapid progress is being made in gathering and

verifying information on the war. The apparatus of records available for this work is incredibly extensive, including both published materials and government archives. Most of the government archives are still closed to research workers, except as the various governments authorize the special preparation of histories which digest certain portions,² but published materials—newspapers, books, and periodicals—are being gathered and made accessible in libraries all over the world and especially in four great depots of war records, in France, England, Germany, and America.³ The abundance of accessible material has drawn so many scholars into this rich new field of research, and has led to so copious a production of monographs, that the war has been called a godsend to the historians. This historical writing has accelerated a movement of thought which, principally for other reasons, had already begun to reinterpret the war.

The starting-point of a general reinterpretation is found in the rather elaborate constructions on the meaning of the war which were propagated while the war was in progress. These theories now strike us as fantastic; in recalling them we feel a curious uneasiness at the memory that we ever believed in them at all. For we then conceived that there were vast trends of universal history of which the war was the supreme and final conflux or consummation. General history courses in American universities were rechristened as courses in "war issues." The principle of mind was said to be in conflict with the principle of matter, order was in struggle with anarchy, right with might, culture with barbarism. A profound cosmic significance was attributed by the spokesmen of each belligerent to the issue of the conflict. The outmoded and intellectually degrading practice of turning history into metaphysics had come again into vogue. From all this we have now fortunately drifted away. That quaint text, "The great war for civilization," which stands embossed on the victory medal which was issued to every soldier of the Allied armies, now brings a smile to the lips of a thoughtful veteran. The old catchwords no longer arouse us to any feeling, except perhaps the feeling of wonder that they could ever have meant so much to us.

The principal reason for the collapse of our earlier interpretation of the war is of course the fact that the war is over, that the problem of winning it no longer confronts us, that we are not pressed every day for some formula by which we can rationalize the carrying on of the war. So long as there was actual need for beliefs that would call forth effort toward victory these beliefs were indulged in, and against them no cold demonstrations of facts could prevail. These beliefs are passing, partly because they are contradicted by new information, but chiefly because they no longer answer to any practical interest in the war.

This does not mean that the war no longer has practical interest for us, but only that the basis of our interest in it has shifted. We are not bothering

about winning the war, but about a host of problems which claim descent from the war. Why do girls bob their hair, we now ask, and why is the younger generation wild? Because of the war. Why is European credit bad, and why is there a shortage of houses in London and New York? The war. There seems to be no limit to the number of our difficulties which originated in the war, and it is almost a matter of convention that every essay on a current social, political or economic problem must include a paragraph of explanation showing how the problem was complicated as a result of the world catastrophe.

Underlying these two kinds of interest in the war are two very different conceptions of the war itself: the older conception of a *drama of conflict*, the newer conception of a *period of revolutionary change*. If the war is conceived as a drama of conflict the important thing about it is whether one or the other side is going to win, but if the war is conceived as a period of revolutionary change, then the fact of victory may appear less important than other facts. Bobbed hair, bad credit, housing shortage, dictatorships, communist parties—these and innumerable other fruits of the war appeared among victors and vanquished alike. They were not created by defeat, nor averted by victory.

The distinction between these two conceptions of the World War is a matter of emphasis. The war was unquestionably both a conflict and a movement in the world's life. Neither of these characters can be denied to it, but the difference in emphasis is not insignificant. For instance, according to the conflict view the disintegration of the political authority of the Hapsburgs in the fourth year of the war is important in so far as it contributed to the victory of the Western Powers and the defeat of Germany. According to the revised view this fact is important chiefly because it led to the Balkanization of Central Europe. If the war is regarded primarily as a conflict, then events derive their importance from the contribution they make to victory or defeat; if it is regarded as a revolution then they derive their importance primarily from the permanence of the changes they effect.

The histories now available, so far as they attempt any general interpretation of the war, use the conception of a drama of conflict. There is a five-volume history,⁴ edited by George H. Allen, in which the story of the conflict is presented in accordance with one of the propaganda views of the meaning of the war, as follows:

- Book One. Causes and Motives.
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A four-volume work by Col. John Buchan describes the conflict as a purely military episode, a siege of Central Europe by the world.⁵

Book One. Early war maneuvers [1914].

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Book Four. The surrender.

It is not to be expected that historians will abandon this conception, for it is very much more difficult to tell a coherent and accurate story of a period of revolutionary change than to give an account of a conflict. Moreover, there are certain considerations in the field of aesthetics which exercise a constant pressure toward giving all historical writing a conflict aspect. A narrative must create suspense in order to be interesting, and must be woven on a thread of conflict in order to create suspense.

If the revised war history were already written—if a new synthesis on the war had already been carried out in detail—it would remain for us here to set forth the plan of the new history for comparison with the outlines of other histories; but the new history of the war is not yet in being. Our only clue to its specific character lies in certain deductions which we can make from the change in the character of our interest in the war. We can sketch roughly the probable consequences of conceiving the war as a period of change rather than as a drama of conflict. Further than this we cannot go.

Assuming, then, that the war is chiefly important to us because of the changes it has brought about and the unsolved problems it has left upon our hands, how will this conception be reflected in the redrafting of war history? The most obvious result will be that the war period will be held to extend beyond the time of the signing of the armistice with Germany on November 11, 1918. Instead of thinking of the World War as an event ended by the armistice or the signing of the Treaty of Versailles, we will think of it as extending through a period to which the armistice stands as a mid-point, a point of maximum intensity, but not a termination.

It is difficult to make this revision in the periodization of war history so long as the war is regarded as a drama of conflict, for the armistice with Germany suggests itself as the natural ending of a dramatic story. This was the supreme moment of the military or moral conflict. Thereafter the importance of military operations rapidly subsided, the moral significance of the victory became rapidly more obscure, even the alignments distinguishing protagonists from antagonists became more or less confused. The events which followed the armistice are an anti-climax to the drama of the World War, but they are an intimate part of the era of world reorganization.

It is not necessary to deny the importance of the armistice and the Treaty of Versailles in order to show that, from the revisionist point of view, they cannot stand as the close of the war period. Juridically speaking, there was no peace with Hungary till 1920, nor with Russia till 1922. Peace between Germany and the United States was not made until

1923, and the Turkish peace waited till 1924. From the military point of view it is equally clear that the war continued beyond the armistice with Germany. The Poles call their part of the World War "the war of 1918-1921"; the Red Army which the Bolsheviks organized in 1918 was on active service for a longer period than the Czarist army which mobilized in 1914 and dissolved in 1917. The territorial reorganization of Europe was not an event which took place in the period 1914-1918; it was an event which occupied the period 1916-1924. In 1916 the organization of a new Poland made the first step away from the old political geography of Europe. In 1917-1918 Western Russia was broken up by Germany; in 1918-1919 Central Europe was reorganized by the Allied Powers; in 1919-1921 the Baltic region was given a permanent settlement by the Allies on the one hand and Russia on the other; in 1920-1923 the reintegration of Russia was accomplished in the Ukraine, in Siberia, and in the Caucasus; in 1923 and 1924 the finishing touches were given in the Near East. None of these events can be assigned to a "post-war" period; a place must be found for them in the panorama of revolution to which they belong.

The considerations which indicate the probability of a revision in our notion of the "war period" suggest also the direction which certain changes of emphasis may take. For instance, the failure to bring about a "peace without victory" in 1916-1917 may come to be regarded as a more revolutionary fact in European history than the failure to settle by diplomatic means the crisis of July, 1914. It was in the winter of 1916-1917 that the old Europe cracked under the war strain. The new governments in Allied countries, military conscription in England, industrial conscription in Germany, revolution in Russia date from this critical season. It was this winter that saw the final gesture which brought the new world into the war. The European war did not become a world war, nor the world war become a world revolution, until after 1916.

It is also quite probable that there will be a re-evaluation of the history of the origin of the war. This portion of war history is at the present time drawn somewhat out of focus by a controversy which is perfectly comprehensible in itself, but none the less misleading so far as general war history revision is concerned.

Those who have hitherto written most copiously on the origin of the war have treated it as a problem of assessing responsibilities. The inquiry has tended to be a naive searching after guilty parties. This is the traditional formulation of the problem of war origins. The question was raised in this form in 1914, and in this form it is being discussed today. The discussion obviously belongs to the fact-inquiry phase of war history revision. How then is it related to the general reinterpretation of the war?

Unfortunately the war origins question has never been taken out of politics. Its close connection with the Reparations problem always colors it. The threads of causation which led to the war were

intricately twined, and no one hand held all of them. To make out a case proving that Poincaré or the Kaiser "started the war" requires a straining of evidence which a historian would not engage in, were it not for the bearing his conclusion has on certain sections of the Treaty of Versailles. The Reparations and War Crimes sections of the treaty were predicated, in theory, upon German war guilt. If it is shown that Poincaré and Izvolsky were primarily responsible for the war, then the conclusion must be drawn that it is unjust to compel the German people to pay reparations to France. This consideration is today the principal one which keeps the war guilt question in the old rut. The problem is primarily legal and political rather than historical; nevertheless the findings made for legal and political purposes have some importance in the historiography of the war.

For the exculpation of Germany accomplishes some confirmatory service in the general reinterpretation of war history. It further discredits those fantastic propagandist explanations of war issues which are already fallen of their own weight. The war guilt of Germany was an important element in that theory of the war which is embossed on our victory medals. Of course, if everything that was said about the deeper meaning of the war had been true, then the question, who precipitated the armed conflict, would have been a merely incidental matter. If the Western Allies had really been representatives of all virtue, and the Central Powers the protagonists of iniquity, then it might have been a commendable thing for the righteous voluntarily to take up arms against the wicked. If the problem of "extirpating Prussian militarism" had really been the kind of a problem that was described to us during the war, then any Poincaré or Izvolsky who initiated a war to destroy it might well be praised for his perspicacity and courage. The exculpation of Germany has had an important effect, but not the decisive effect, in overturning these theories of the meaning of the war. These were beliefs that could not survive the subsiding of war excitement. They collapsed as soon as they ceased to fulfil the useful function of heating our fighting blood. The new evidence on war guilt merely scatters salt on the ruins.

No matter what general conception of the war is entertained, there will always be a problem of war origins; but the problem may be formulated in many different ways. The result of conceiving the war as an episode of conflict should be that we inquire, in investigating its origin, how it came about that the conflict took place at all. The result of conceiving the war as a period of change should be that we inquire further how it was pre-determined that the war, coming as it did, should take the course it followed rather than some other course, and should result in the consequences we now attribute to it rather than in some other consequences. For instance, the pre-war military plans of the Russian and German General Staffs have two kinds of his-

torical significance in that they were important elements in the situation which determined that the war was to occur, and also decisive factors in shaping the course that the war was to take after it started. They helped to bring it about that Germany declared war on Russia and France, and they also pre-determined the fields of the first great battles and gave to the war map of Europe certain contours which it held for four years. Both of these aspects of the military preparation for war fall naturally into the field of war origins. Again, the pre-war movement for national unity among the South Slavs has a two-fold bearing on the war. It furnished the incident which precipitated the war, and resulted in important political-geographical changes in the course of the war. Both of these aspects of the pan-Serb movement come properly under the head of war origins. When our attention is diverted from the criminal-law formulation of the problem of war origins, we will probably come to look more carefully in the pre-war period for the origins of the results of the war. And that will be the new formulation of the problem.

These suggestions as to the probable content of a revised war history—its new periodization, its new evaluations, its new emphasis in the story of war origins—rest necessarily on speculative foundations. But the speculation is not idle and gratuitous. It may turn out to be wrong, but it is not concocted out of thin air. In fact these are conclusions on the rewriting of history which it has been necessary to reach in order to solve some very definite and practical problems in collecting and organizing records from which war history is to be written.

Historians are trained to suspect the value of judgments on the general revision of history, and to receive with much circumspection all predictions, especially those relating to the work of "the historians of the future." But librarians and archivists cannot share this attitude, because they are charged with the duty of preserving the records which the historian of the future is to use. They have before them an almost unlimited quantity of material in which contemporary life is recorded; most of this must be lost, or else remain scattered, buried or inaccessible, but some of it can be preserved and organized for the convenience of historians. There must be some criterium by which to select the material which is to be preserved and made useful, distinguishing it from the material which is to be discarded or ignored. This problem of evaluation which presses upon archivists and librarians today is the same that will press upon historians tomorrow. The great depots of war records have each found it necessary to formulate in a rather definite way its conception of the war, of the scope of the war period, and of the relative importance of various aspects of the war. The *Musée de la Guerre* first planned its work in the thought that the war period extended from August, 1914, to June, 1919, but after a time it came to conceive the period as extending beyond 1919. The *Imperial War Museum* conceives the war

as a great act of co-operation and sacrifice on the part of the British peoples, the memory of which act it purposes to perpetuate. The Hoover War Library has made use of a conception of the war which conforms roughly to that which has been set forth in this article, namely:

1. That the world war is chiefly important for us as a period of rapid institutional transition, a period in which present-day problems originated or assumed new forms.

2. That the war, as a period of transition or origins, must be conceived as extending beyond the year 1918, so that the armistice with Germany is considered the mid-point, rather than the termination, of this historical period.

3. That the acceptance of this new point of view will result in re-evaluations, such as a diminution of our interest in the problem of war guilt, and an increase of our interest in the crisis of 1916-1917, or in the crisis of the Peace Conference.

¹The word "revision" used in Germany in this connection applies to the revision of the Treaty of Versailles—a revision held to be warranted by the confirmation of the German view of war guilt.

²Most of these histories are of the military type. The French, Italian, and Polish Ministries of War, the British Committee of Imperial Defense, and the German Reichsarchiv and Marinarchiv are producing military and naval histories which will furnish the starting-point for all further investigation:

France. Ministère de la Guerre. Etat Major de l'Armée. Service Historique: *Les Armées françaises dans la grande guerre*. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1922-

Italy. Ministero della guerra. Stato Maggiore. Ufficio Storico: *L'Esercito italiano nella grande guerra (1915-1918)* Rome, 1927-. (In addition to this a number of separate accounts of different campaigns and of different organizations have been compiled by the same authority.)

Poland. Biuro historyczne sztabu generalnego. *Studja operacyjne z historii wojen polskich 1918-1921*, Warszawa, Wojskowy Instytut, 1926-

Great Britain. Committee of Imperial Defense, Historical Section: *History of the Great War Based on Official Documents. Military operations*, London, Longmans Green, 1920-. Compiled by Brig.-Gen. J. E. Edmonds, also *Naval Operations*, London, Longmans Green, 1920-

Germany. Marinarchiv. *Der Krieg zur See*, Berlin, E. S. Mittler, 1920-

Germany. Reichsarchiv. *Der Weltkrieg 1914 bis 1918*. Berlin, Mittler, 1925-

Another type of history based on archives is represented by the *History of the Ministry of Munitions*, in eight volumes, published by the British Ministry of Munitions. Many of the special war organs of the various governments supervised the preparation of histories of their own activities before dissolving. The Russian Foreign Office archives are furnishing most of the documentary information we have on Allied diplomacy during the war. This material is published from time to time in *Krasnyi Arkhiv*, and in special publications, such as the collection of secret treaties published in 1918, and the recent volumes on "The Great Powers in Greece" and "The Great Powers in Turkey," published by the People's Commissary for Foreign Affairs. Our principal access to the political archives of the Central Powers is found in the work of the German Parliamentary Committee of Inquiry on the Responsibilities for the War, which is still publishing the results of its long investigation.

³The Musée de la Guerre at Paris, the Imperial War Museum at London, the Weltkriegsbucherei at Stuttgart, and the Hoover War Library at Stanford University, California.

⁴The great war....by George H. Allen [and others], Phila., G. Barrie and Sons, 1915-21.

⁵John Buchan: *A history of the great war*. London. Nelson & Co., 1920-1922. [This is a re-edited version of "Nelson's history of the great war," which appeared while the war was in progress.]

Germany's Industrial Progress and the American Business Man¹

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RAPID RECUPERATION

At the outbreak of the World War, Germany, as we all know, was fast climbing to the pinnacle of industrial supremacy—not only in Europe, but throughout the world. In the production of pig iron and steel she stood second only to the United States, and her merchant marine was exceeded only by the merchant fleets of Great Britain and the United States. She ranked third in the number of cotton spindles in operation, and her chemical industry, particularly the production of aniline dyes, was unequaled by that of any other country. In fact, from 1890 on, newly built factories and shops, efficiently managed, sprang up almost over night. Germany's competitors, especially Great Britain, became thoroughly alarmed as they watched Germany's ever lengthening industrial and commercial strides.

The year 1918, however, found Germany staggering from the shock of war, military defeat, political revolution and economic confusion. On the material side she had lost 13 per cent. of her continental area, 10 per cent. of her population, her entire colonial establishment, 26 per cent. of her coal, 74 per cent.

of her iron ore, 68 per cent. of her zinc, 85 per cent. of her merchant tonnage, and 30 per cent. of her potash production. Her pre-war capacity to put a million metric tons of sugar on the market annually had been entirely wiped out. To make matters worse, receipts of the Reich, from taxes of every description, amounted to less than one one-thousandth of the expenses of the Government. In desperation the Government resorted to paper money, the printing presses working day and night. Depreciation quickly followed, the purchasing power of the mark sometimes decreasing as much as 90 per cent. in the course of a few hours. Prices shot upward with amazing rapidity. Some notion of this increase may be gained when we consider that, with the price level of 1913 as 100, the average level in Germany in 1918 was 217. In 1920 it rose to 1486; in 1921 to 1911; in 1922 to 34,182, and in 1923 to the high water mark of 16,620,000,000,000. Finally in November, 1923, when the paper money had become practically worthless, it was exchanged for a new form of money—the Rentenmark—at the ratio of a trillion to one. Repudiation followed. Deposits in savings banks, Govern-

ment bonds, mortgages, and internal obligations of every sort were virtually wiped out. Whatever business there was came to a standstill. During the winter of 1923-24 bankruptcies, unemployment, hunger and distress were the order of the day.

Less than four years have elapsed since that hectic winter, and while Germany suffered a mild relapse of inflation in the winters of 1925-26 and 1926-27, her convalescence and recovery on the industrial side have been truly phenomenal. Her currency has been stabilized; her budget has been balanced; her factories are turning out more goods than they did prior to the World War. Iron ore production for 1926, for example, totaled 9,642,000 metric tons as against 4,936,000 for 1924, and 9,240,000 for 1913. Her steel production for 1926 was, roughly, 12,340,000 metric tons as against 6,305,000 for 1923, and 12,236,000 for 1913. Coal production for 1926, not counting the Saar, exceeded that of the same area for 1913; while the output of lignite or soft coal actually increased 38 per cent. Although her commercial ocean fleet was cut to 15 per cent. of its pre-war strength under the peace settlement, it is already back to 60 per cent. of its pre-war tonnage, having almost doubled since 1923. Production of electrical power shows an increase of more than 200 per cent. over 1913. The number of cotton spindles last year (1926) almost equaled the number in operation in 1913. In the manufacture of aerial motors and in the extent to which she has developed air transportation, Germany leads the world. In 1926 the aircraft of the Lufthansa, organized in 1925 by the amalgamation of the Aero-Lloyd and the Junker air companies, covered 3,813,000 miles—a gain of over a million miles in a single year. Over 56,000 passengers were carried by the Lufthansa in 1926, an increase of 50 per cent. over 1925. The amount of baggage and freight transported showed an increase of over 115 per cent., and postal matter of 86 per cent. Incidentally, the Lufthansa Company receives a Government subsidy of \$4,000,000 a year. France subsidizes her aircraft to the extent of \$2,500,000 and Great Britain to the amount of \$685,000.

Although sufficient evidence has been advanced to indicate the extent of Germany's industrial come-back, it might be well for us to cite just one other bit of data, namely, savings bank deposits. On January 1, 1927, deposits totaled more than 3,000,000,000 marks, a gain of over 1,200,000,000 in a single year.

CAUSES OF PROGRESS

What—it may well be asked—has made it possible for Germany to stage this remarkable industrial come-back?

In the first place, German leaders, quick to realize that Germany's future depends in no small measure upon her ability to regain her economic place in the sun, have focused their efforts to that end. The ousting of the Hohenzollerns and the old officialdom with its bureaucracy has not seriously concerned them. In Government circles the old aristocracy has been replaced by those who emanate from the liberal bourgeoisie and the laboring classes. In other words,

leadership of the old Junker military class has given way to the leadership of bankers, industrialists, masters of transportation, and those who live by the sweat of their brow.

Secondly, Germany has, perhaps to a greater extent than ever before, made use of industrial technique and efficiency. Weak and uneconomic undertakings have been abandoned. In the potash industry, for example, 152 out of 224 plants have been closed, and in the Ruhr 38 coal mines have been shut down as inefficient and unprofitable. Industrial establishments which came into being as a result of Germany's exclusion from the markets of the world during the war have been abandoned in many cases or transformed. Wide use has also been made of cartels.

Thirdly, inflation greatly stimulated business expansion. Easy credit and a flood of depreciating paper money led to increased buying and speculation, and these in turn encouraged added production. Moreover, during these days of inflation, the wide-awake German business man transferred his marks into fixed capital in the form of plant structure and equipment.

Finally, Germany's industrial renaissance has undoubtedly been facilitated by the numerous loans, domestic and foreign, which both the German Government and German business men have been able to negotiate. In 1924, the year in which the Dawes plan went into effect, Germany borrowed from abroad a total of \$250,000,000. In the following year her foreign loans amounted to \$313,725,000, and in 1926 they rose to \$422,525,000. Her loans for the single month of July, 1927, reached \$108,000,000. In all, her foreign loans from the time the Dawes plan began to function to the first of August, 1927, totaled \$1,172,675,000. This figure includes loans to the Reich, to the states and municipalities, public utility companies, private firms, and church organizations. How much of the total went into industrial enterprises may be judged from the fact that of the \$417,368,360 borrowed from the United States in 1926, no less than \$314,907,610 was loaned to industrial corporations.

From what has been said it might perhaps be inferred that Germany has not only regained her former economic prestige, but that all the great obstacles which stood squarely across her industrial path in 1918 have been overcome. While the first premise is largely true as far as plant structure and ability to produce are concerned, Germany is still faced, among other things, with the three-fold problem of reparations, maintenance of standards of living, and markets.

THE PROBLEM OF REPARATIONS

The story of the German reparation controversy is so familiar to us all that it need not be retold here. Suffice that Germany is still nominally obligated under existing arrangements to pay \$33,000,000,000 and that the interest on it has not been paid; that under the Dawes plan Germany is called upon to make annual payments, starting with \$250,000,000 in 1924-25, and gradually increasing to \$437,500,000

in 1927, and to \$625,000,000 in 1928-29 and for each fiscal year thereafter, plus extra sums to be determined by an index of German prosperity. Money for these payments is supposed to come from railway and industrial revenues, from the proceeds of the transport tax, and from budget appropriations. To pay these reparations and to prevent the lowering of the standards of living of her growing population, Germany must have a large trade balance in her favor. In other words, she must have markets for her surplus production; she must export more than she imports.

FOREIGN MARKETS

Unfortunately, Germany—like most of the other leading countries of Europe—is importing more than she is exporting. In fact, from 1913 on, the trade balance has been against her. Moreover, if we examine the figures listed in the second of the appended tables we discover that her importations of articles of food and drink in the last three years greatly exceed the importation of raw materials for manufacture. Increased imports of raw materials, such as cotton, wool and rubber, in the last few years have been used to satisfy domestic demands rather than the demands of foreign trade. During last summer many Germans were somewhat fearful lest the demands of the domestic market had been overestimated and an oversupply of raw materials had been imported.

GERMAN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN MARKS

(Monthly average—000s omitted)

	Imports	Exports	Balance
1913.....	897,474	841,436	— 56,038
1919.....	2,698,000	838,083	—1,859,917
1920.....	8,256,417	5,785,100	—2,471,317
1921.....	9,815,963	8,299,713	—1,516,250
1922.....	516,700	330,833	— 185,867
1923.....	512,477	508,527	— 3,950
1924.....	756,901	545,970	— 210,930
1925.....	1,030,171	733,190	— 296,981
1926.....	833,527	817,757	— 15,770
1927 (seven months)...	1,144,951	803,054	— 341,897

FOREIGN TRADE OF GERMANY, 1913 AND 1925

(Value in gold marks—000s omitted)

	1913		1925	
	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports
Live animals	289,697	7,444	122,022	15,256
Articles of food and drink	2,807,829	1,069,522	4,032,177	516,919
Materials, raw or partly manufac- tured	6,279,949	2,274,087	6,298,981	1,640,407
Manufactured articles	1,393,211	6,746,181	2,004,969	6,625,837
Gold and silver	436,394	101,372	718,110	39,564

Totals 11,206,080 10,198,606 13,146,239 8,837,983

When we turn to exports we find that manufactures declined from 6,746,181,000 marks in 1913 to 4,732,904,000 marks in 1925. With exports less than imports, how is Germany to meet her reparations payments and maintain or improve her present standard of living? To date the German Government has been able to make reparations payments under the Dawes plan by borrowing heavily from foreign bankers. If no further foreign loans should be made it is difficult to see how she can possibly meet future payments unless, perchance, she should perform the seemingly

impossible and develop an export surplus sufficient to meet the financial demands made upon her. This, on the basis of present indications, she is unlikely to do. Indeed, many observers, including John Maynard Keynes of England, are of the opinion that on account of this adverse trade balance the Dawes plan will break down.

Of the several factors which help to explain Germany's failure thus far to secure markets adequate to enable her to enjoy a favorable balance of trade, two deserves brief mention: First, she is faced by a wall of protective tariffs. With few exceptions, all the countries of the world have raised their tariff rates since 1913. In 1925 Spain had a tariff level of over 40 per cent., the United States over 25 per cent., Argentine, Hungary, Poland and Yugoslavia between 20 and 25 per cent., Australia, Canada, Czechoslovakia and Italy between 15 and 20 per cent., Austria, France, India, Sweden and Switzerland between 10 and 15 per cent., Belgium and Denmark between 5 and 10 per cent., the Netherlands and the United Kingdom under 5 per cent. Since 1925 many of these countries have raised their rates. Practically all the increases from 1913 to the present have been heaviest on manufactured goods.

Secondly, Germany today faces keener competition in the markets of the world than ever before. Just as Great Britain suffered after 1870 from the activities of younger industrial competitors like the United States and Germany, so Germany today is faced not only with the competition of her pre-war rivals, who partly as a result of the war increased their plant capacities, but with that of other countries in Asia, Africa and the Americas. Unable to secure European manufactures as readily as before, these former non-industrialized areas began during the war to produce their own manufactured commodities. For the sake of clarity and emphasis let us cite a specific instance: Today Japan and the United States between them are consuming nearly two million more bales of cotton than in 1913, and Europe nearly two million less. From 1913 to 1925 exports of cotton goods from Great Britain and Germany, the two leading cotton manufacturing nations of Europe, declined sharply; while during the same period like exports from the United States, Italy, China, India and Japan showed marked increase. Exports of cotton piece-goods from Japan, for example, rose from 10,336 tons in 1913 to 104,329 tons in 1925. And the same is true of iron, steel, rubber, and dozens of other manufactured commodities. The palmy days of the mid-nineteenth century when England, because of the momentum of an early start, enjoyed practically a monopoly of the world's markets for manufactured goods, are gone forever. Even the competition for markets of the pre-war decade was mild in comparison with that of the present.

INTERESTS OF AMERICANS

Turning to the United States we find two groups of American business men deeply interested in the New Germany: the bankers and the manufacturers.

Conservative estimates credit 70 per cent. of the total amount of German foreign loans to American

investors. Naturally, those investors are anxious that Germany should prosper and thereby ensure the safety of their investments. This is especially true of those who have invested in industrial enterprises. Furthermore, the American banker is decidedly inclined to take the position that interest on his loans should have priority over reparations payments, although nominally the reparations charge enjoys this right. Mr. S. Parker Gilbert, Agent General for Reparations, undoubtedly had this fact in mind when recently he openly warned the German people against artificial prosperity created by extensive borrowing. Should the issue come to a head, as it seems likely to do sooner or later, the weight of opinion in Germany at least will probably be with the American investor, for unless the sums borrowed and the interest thereon are paid when due it will be most difficult for German borrowers to negotiate new foreign loans. Moreover, there is every reason to believe that the great majority of Germans, irrespective of what they may say outwardly, believe that the whole reparations arrangement is unjust and an obstacle to the peace and prosperity of Europe and the world.

The interests of the American manufacturer sharply clash with those of the American banker. Intent on increasing the volume of both his domestic and foreign trade, he beholds in the New Germany a dangerous competitor. Prior to the twentieth century the export trade of the United States consisted almost exclusively of agricultural products and raw materials—cotton, grain, tobacco, iron, timber, and the like. With the rapid growth of industrialization, however, the character of our foreign trade began to change. At the beginning of the World War we were still exporting considerable quantities of raw materials, but exportation of foodstuffs was declining; home consumption required a larger percentage of our food production. Indeed, we were already importing considerable quantities of food products, especially from the tropics, and it was clearly evident that the day was not far distant when, measured by value, our food imports would equal, if not excel, our food exports; also our rapidly expanding industries greatly increased our importations of such commodities as rubber, wool, non-ferrous metals, and raw silks. In 1913 finished manufactured goods took the lead among our export items. In 1880 raw materials and foodstuffs constituted 61 per cent. of our exports, and manufactured goods only 15 per cent. By 1926 the tables were reversed: manufactured goods comprising 52 per cent. of our exports, and raw materials and foodstuffs, 34 per cent.

The World War, like the American Civil War, gave impetus to the great industrial process that in less than two generations transformed the United States from an agrarian to an industrialized nation. In 1926 each of twelve countries—Canada, the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Japan, Australia, Cuba, Italy, Argentine, Netherlands, Mexico, and China—purchased more than \$100,000,000 worth of American goods. Last year (1926) we exported

\$356,000,000 worth of automobiles and other vehicles, our principal customers being Australia, Canada, Argentine, South Africa, and Brazil. Today the United States is producing 51 per cent. of the world's pig iron, 66 per cent. of its steel, 51 per cent. of its copper, 62 per cent. of its petroleum, 43 per cent. of its coal, 52 per cent. of its timber, 42 per cent. of its phosphate, 80 per cent. of its sulphur, 63 per cent. of its mica, 62 per cent. of its lead, 64 per cent. of its zinc, and 55 per cent. of its cotton. With such enormous resources, an abundance of capital, government aid in the form of protective tariff, and marvelous technique, it is obvious that the United States alone can sooner or later easily flood the world with manufactured goods. My thought is admirably summarized by Mr. Kirby Page, editor of *The World Tomorrow*, who certainly cannot be accused of being selfishly nationalistic. I quote:

"Prosperity is increasingly dependent upon our ability to buy and sell overseas. We simply must secure huge quantities of rubber and other raw materials if our factories are to be kept going. We must not only sell vast quantities of cotton and wheat. We must find customers for our surplus manufactured products. All industrial nations tend to produce more goods than can be sold at home. Henceforth, the welfare of our citizens—farmers and industrial workers, manufacturers and bankers, producers and consumers—is bound up with foreign trade."

Therefore, when all is said and done, it would seem that as between the German and American manufacturer, the former rather than the latter has the more cause for apprehension.

All will agree that in the last few years Germany has made remarkable progress, but the real test—not only for Germany but for the other debtor nations of Europe—is just ahead. Whether they can withstand the merciless competition of such countries as the United States and Japan, transform their present adverse trade balances and thereby maintain or better the present standards of living, and meet their foreign obligations, remains to be seen. At present the outlook is far from promising.

Germany is not yet in reality paying her reparations out of earnings and, with the exception of Great Britain, those nations which are head over heels in debt to the United States as a result of the World War are not even paying interest on their indebtedness. Moreover, our present tariff barrier renders it extremely difficult for those debtor nations to reimburse us in goods. All things considered, it would seem that a crisis growing out of the four factors of reparations, inter-allied debts, America's overseas investments, and extreme nationalism as expressed in high protective tariffs, is near at hand.

Bibliographical Note:

The documents prepared for the World Economic Conference held in Geneva in 1927, and the admirable study made by Professor E. M. Patterson, *Europe in 1927, an Economic Survey* (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CXXXIV, November, 1927), based on these documents, together with recent Statistical Abstracts and Reports of the Departments of Commerce and Agriculture of the United States, constitute a veritable mine of information on the subject of this paper.

¹Address delivered before the New England History Teachers Association, in Boston, December 3, 1927.

Ultimate Objectives and Goals of Achievement for History in the Public Schools¹

BY FREMONT P. WIRTH, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS

The objectives of history, as well as of education in general, have been so often enumerated that one who now attempts to discuss the subject can hardly be said to be opening a new and promising field. Considerable space has been devoted to objectives in the reports of committees of this Association and other organizations. They have been carefully considered and clearly stated. Makers of curricula, of whom we have had many in the past decade, have had prolific ideas on the subject and have exerted considerable influence on history in the public schools. Likewise, those who were engaged in the outlining of courses of study for states, cities, and counties have attempted to add to the list by a rewording of the objectives already listed and the occasional statement of a new one. Numerous writers of textbooks on history and social science, it seems, have often sought to give merit to their respective volumes by a statement in the preface of the objectives, thus calling to the attention of those who have the task of selecting textbooks that theirs is not a mere collection of historical facts without a definite purpose. Writers of books on methods of teaching history, as well as writers of numerous articles on the same subject, have made, or attempted to make, their contribution to this important field. Writers on educational theory have not overlooked this subject and have called our attention to the changing social conditions, which have demanded a reorganization of education, and to the necessary enrichment of the curriculum, and a likewise necessary re-examination and restatement of the objectives. Last of all, the questionnaire has been pressed into service and opinion gathered from teachers of history. Even high school students have been forced to venture their opinion as to the relative importance of the objectives.

All this effort has produced an enormous amount of literature on the subject, and objectives too numerous to mention have appeared. One educational writer had already before the war discovered thirty-nine distinct objectives,² and I gather from a more recent inquiry that twenty-four more have been added, making a total of sixty-three to date. A wide range of objectives has been suggested, varying all the way from saving civilization from chaos and ruin to imparting the knowledge of how to use the table of contents in a textbook. No stone seems to have been left unturned, and, in a few cases, where the objectives were not suited to history, the subject was changed to fit the objectives.

It is needless to say, therefore, that with such an amount already available, I shall not attempt to add to this long list; however, I shall state some which I consider important.

It has been suggested that while there are many objectives, there are also many different kinds of

history.³ For this discussion, however, we shall confine ourselves to scientific or critical history. We are not anxious to manufacture different kinds of history in order that we may add to the list of objectives.

We might at the very beginning raise the question whether there are principles to guide us in the selection and statement of objectives. I think there are. We might take as our first principle, if so commonplace a statement may be called a principle, that in the statement of objectives the subject itself, with its limitations and its possibilities, must be considered as well as the needs of society, and that the subject should not be made over to fit the objectives. Extravagant claims as to the moral lessons which history teaches might result in doing violence to the record in order that certain results may be produced. Nor is any value to be gained by ascribing numerous and important objectives to a subject, unless the material to be selected and the methods of presentation are such as will attain these aims or objectives as definite goals of achievement.

As our second principle, we may contend that the objectives of history shall be in harmony with the objectives of education in general. No argument is necessary to establish so simple a truth. Indeed, the purpose of instruction in history is to educate. The objectives of education give us the clue to the objectives of history. Herbert Spencer more than half a century ago said, "How to live? That is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense....To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is to judge in what degree it discharges such function."⁴ Not much has been added to the above by educational philosophers, nor by the seekers of ultimate objectives of history or of any other subject. We have changed the wording somewhat and said that the purpose is training for citizenship, or for social efficiency, and the like. Such statements, however, have been only an explanation or a restatement of terms. The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, in an attempt to state the objectives which should guide education in a democracy, enumerated seven objectives,⁵ all of which may be considered as making for complete living in a democracy. This Commission stated that, while all subjects should contribute to good citizenship, which is one of the seven objectives which should guide education in a democracy, the social studies—geography, history, civics, and economics—should have this as their dominant aim. History, then, should along with other subjects work toward the general aims of education. We should welcome the effort of other subjects in their

attempt to realize certain desirable goals. While it is true that history has a distinctive aim and makes a contribution which no other subject can make, yet there is no reason why it should not share with other subjects certain other aims.

As our third principle, we might say that in the statement of objectives we must consider the nature of the society in which history is to function. The function of education is to train for complete living in a democracy, to train for citizenship in a society which is continually changing. The objectives of education for a static society might lead to certain definite patterns to which all must conform, but in a changing social order education must produce the ability to create the pattern. Self-expression and the development of capacities within the individual are to be sought. These capacities are especially important in a continually changing social order in which individuals and institutions are forced to meet changing conditions. Professor Bode emphasizes this by saying, "The purpose of education is not to fit the individual for a place in society, but to enable him to make his own place....The life of the next generation will be different from ours and will be different in ways that we cannot foresee."⁶ Since we cannot foresee the conditions under which the pupil must live, we are forced to recognize the danger of setting up objectives which disregard these limitations.

As a fourth principle, we may say that the ultimate objectives should admit of being translated into specific objectives, which will result in activities which are in accord with sound educational processes, so that the ultimate objectives may lead to definite goals of achievement.

In accordance with these so-called principles we shall attempt to state and examine a few ultimate objectives, not new but fundamental. At the head of the list we may state, in broad and general terms, training for citizenship in a democracy. This is an objective of education, in general, but of special importance for history in the public schools. Training for citizenship in a democracy will include a multitude of other objectives. It involves an understanding of the present social order. To understand, information is necessary—information regarding the past. Without a rich background of historical information the student has no means for interpreting social conditions. He must study the past in order to understand how the present came into being. To understand this development facts are necessary, not facts in isolation, but in relation to other facts. This will enable him to see the process of development over a long period of time. This should help him to orientate himself and see his place in a changing world. It should help the student to understand and appreciate our institutions, which are the result of centuries of human endeavor and achievement. It should make him tolerant toward changes which seem to be in the very nature of things, and yet because of his knowledge and understanding of the contributions of other times and peoples it will tend to curb

extreme radicalism and lead to sympathy and respect for both their and our institutions. The student should thus acquire a broader outlook which will remove ignorance, prejudice, and provincialism.

These, in brief, are some of the ultimate objectives for history in the public schools, though the list could be greatly extended, and most of them could be stated in other words. These objectives are to be realized quite as much through the method of presentation as through the selection of the content to be taught. In fact, these objectives can be attained only when they are brought out of the realm of speculation and are transformed into definite specific objectives which the teacher understands and can put into operation. To realize the ends sought, the method of dealing with the content must be such as to produce as goals of achievement certain abilities, habits, attitudes, and skills.

One of the aims of history, according to Professor M. W. Jernegan, should be to produce a questioning attitude toward the alleged facts of history.⁷ Such an attitude constitutes a very desirable goal of achievement. Mr. Jernegan points out that too often historical teaching in American colleges has a tendency to look upon history as a memory exercise, with a slavish dependence on the textbook and other secondary accounts. While this is true in colleges, it is even more common in the grades and in high school. The criticism, I feel, is directed not at the objectives, nor at the subject-matter taught, but at the method of procedure. This questioning attitude on the part of the student must be encouraged and developed. It is an important part of training for citizenship. It is true that we are inclined to believe what we see in print. The American public has a reputation for being easily misled by unsupported assertions and claims; proper historical teaching should make the student less gullible. Such training should produce a citizenship with power to discriminate between propaganda and fact. History teaching might then produce a very practical result. A less credulous public might demand a higher standard in the press and give less opportunity for sensational, unsupported charges. Proper historical teaching might even produce an electorate that will look over the pages of history for light on the conduct of statesmen. Politicians and statesmen might, in turn, feel that their actions will become common knowledge because of an examination of the record by a trained and understanding public. A study of the past in this questioning attitude might lead to an understanding or at least a questioning of the motives of "patriot politicians" who seemingly become interested in the causes of the American Revolution as treated in high school textbooks. Such an intelligent questioning attitude which will lead to the examination of the records may be considered a proper goal of achievement for history in the public schools.

The goals of achievement are implied in the objectives but are realized only when the teaching is successful. Among the goals of achievement we should

certainly expect to find historical information. It has not been fashionable in certain quarters to insist that mere facts be learned, but I feel quite certain that unless historical information is acquired, not very much is accomplished by historical instruction. Important though I consider the acquisition of knowledge, I shall not attempt to set up minimum essentials for history in the public schools. Herbert Spencer in speaking of the true uses of history said, "We want all the facts which help to understand how a nation has grown and organized itself."⁸ This we might modify by saying that we want all the facts necessary to understand how civilization has grown. Facts are necessary, but not a particular fact, at least not a fact in isolation. Facts become important only in so far as they explain other facts and thus make for the understanding of history rather than for mere memory training, though that may be important also.

The related facts should be those which give us an understanding of important institutions, movements, and problems. For example, such as explain the rise and development of representative government, such as explain the territorial growth of the United States, the origin, development, and final solution of the slavery problem. These are but examples of related facts which must be understood. The ability to know and to understand these facts and to note the accompanying changes and effects on our political, social, and economic order is a result which should constitute an important goal of achievement.

Since the student deals with scientifically established information, he should acquire knowledge of the processes by which historical facts are established. He should have a knowledge of sources and the principles of historical criticism. He should have opportunity to apply these principles and should know what it means to form an independent judgment or to withhold judgment. Such training should make him a critical student, one who knows that he may be dealing with scientifically established information or with merely so-called facts that have not been verified and are mere opinion, but are passing under the name of history. Training of this kind should produce a citizen with appreciation and respect for scholarship. Such training will form the habit of doubting, questioning, and verifying results. This constitutes an important and attainable goal of achievement.

The instruments of study become more important in a system which demands the fullest possible expression of native capacity in the individual. The student must have the ability to solve new problems which may arise in the future, but which we cannot foresee. Conflicting interests in our society make it difficult but highly desirable that these problems be approached in an unbiased attitude, and that both sides of the question be studied and appreciated. The interests of the farmer, seeking relief, or the manufacturer, seeking protection, may be easily understood and appreciated by a particular group, but our national

safety lies in the general intelligence of our citizens, and this means the ability and the disposition to understand both sides of the question and to adjust them in the light of the common good.⁹ It is not easy to look at the common welfare when particular interests are at stake, but history offers many such cases for consideration, and possibly the habit or attitude of open-mindedness can thereby be strengthened. The habit of looking at both sides and of inquiring into the reasons for different points of view should constitute another important goal of achievement for history in the public schools.

By way of summary, let me repeat that among the objectives for history in the public schools we should expect training for citizenship in the fullest meaning of the term. Such training will require historical information which will lead to understanding of the present social conditions, because of knowledge of the past. These objectives should be realized through the selection of content and methods of presentation. The teaching of history should produce as goals of achievement (1) An understanding of the realities of the past, (2) A questioning attitude toward the alleged facts of history, (3) The ability to discriminate between propaganda and fact, (4) The habit of looking at both sides of the question. The list of goals of achievement, as well as the list of objectives, might be greatly extended; however, the time does not permit a further enumeration.

¹ Paper read before the American Historical Association at Washington, D. C., December 29, 1927.

² This fact is referred to by Henry Johnson, "Characteristic Elements of the Social Studies," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIII, 327.

³ Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools* (New York, 1920), p. 72.

⁴ Herbert Spencer, *Education—Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* (New York, 1920), p. 12.

⁵ "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," United States Bureau of Education Bulletin 33 (Washington, 1918), p. 10.

⁶ Boyd H. Bode, *Modern Educational Theories* (New York, 1927), p. 237f.

⁷ M. W. Jernegan, "The Colleges and Historical Research," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVIII, 105.

⁸ Spencer, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

⁹ Bode, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

Wickham Steed's article on America's part in European affairs, which appeared in a recent number of *Current History*, is answered by a group of eminent men writing for the current issue of the magazine. The general tone of the Symposium is that in case of a war, America will not refuse to intervene. Philip Marshall Brown goes so far as to say "The larger interests of the United States in international friendship, justice, and peace would seem clearly to demand we should never forego our freedom of action to determine in every emergency the precise manner in which we can most effectively serve the cause of world peace; while Irvine Lenroot says: "I would like to see a declaration made by Congress...approved by the President, declaring that whenever the United States shall determine that a nation has engaged in war without a just cause it will give its moral support to any nation...which will take action for the purpose of compelling the offending nation to desist." Other writers are Theodore E. Burton, Thomas J. Walsh, Victor L. Berger, Senator Willis, and David Jayne Hill.

Another View of Objectives and Goals

BY GEORGE A. ANDREWS, THE PRINCIPIA, ST. LOUIS, MO.

The address and discussion before the teachers assembled at the luncheon meeting on History Teaching in the Schools, during the American Historical Association Convention in Washington, December 28, 30, 1927, aroused in at least one listener a considerable questioning. As the paper on "Ultimate Objectives and Goals of Achievement for History in the Public Schools," read by Professor Fremont P. Wirth, of George Peabody College for Teachers, has not been published, and the discussion in which Professor Pahlow, of Ohio State, Professor Gambrill, of Teachers College, and Professor Knowlton, of Yale, participated, was not reported, comment must be made from memory, and apologies are herewith tendered if the ideas of any of the speakers are misrepresented. Unfortunately, there was no time available for comment from the floor, and the views of the common or garden teacher were not heard. However, there seemed to be a murmur of approval as well as of amusement when Professor A. C. Krey, who is conducting the history teaching survey, was called on by the chairman and confessed that the further he surveyed the less prepared he felt to express an opinion on history teaching.

Professor Wirth, after referring to the sixty varieties of history teaching objectives which may be culled and compiled from textbook prefaces and manuals, reduced them to four or five objectives which he wished to emphasize. And first and foremost of his objectives he placed training for citizenship. May we ask, is training for citizenship the ultimate goal and objective of history teaching to any greater extent than it is the ultimate goal of education in all its branches? Does history need this special justification for its inclusion in the curriculum? Is it our experience that the best student of history is the best citizen? Do we find that the good student of history is a better citizen than is a good student of the sciences? Do we not all know many excellent citizens who know little history outside the history of their life experience? If history is desirable but not essential to good citizenship, do we make a mistake in asserting training for citizenship as its primary goal?

Why do we include history in our school curriculum? Is not the objective of education to open before the student all phases of life experience in order that he may, first, choose wisely those phases of experience in which he will participate, and second, that he may be best prepared to make progress in the phases of life in which he participates? Does not history have sufficient claim for inclusion as a broad exposition of all the human knowledge available in many phases of human life?

What shall we accept as the objectives of history teaching? Is our first objective to explain current

human life as the result of a cumulative process built upon past life? If we must have a broad objective, perhaps that is a good one. But are there not many of the devotees of history, even among professors and writers of high reputation, who find the value of history in the thing itself, in the inherent interest of the human story, and who find sufficient objective in the satisfactory employment of leisure, whether or not it also be the means of livelihood? Would we be wrong in making interest in history a primary objective, in this age when machine production is demanding leisure for consumption, and "eye and ear entertainment" gives little scope to the mind? Has the teacher who arouses and maintains interest in history as a fascinating study placed any barriers in the way of realization of its utilitarian values?

Of what importance is the second aim, preparing the student through history teaching for better progress in his chosen field of life? Doubtless Professor Wirth laid aside with the fifty-five minor objectives many of the factors with which this query is concerned. But it seems pertinent to ask, are they minor? In closing his remarks of discussion, Professor Pahlow spoke a word of comfort to the teachers by suggesting that progress could be made in sending to college students trained to make good outlines. This sally brought a ripple of laughter, but to one of the hearers it seemed a more direct and promising approach to the problem than did "training for citizenship." Is it not our experience that there are many who study history and do not find that it appeals to them as a major interest, many who progress no further in history than our introductory courses? Is it not possible for us to so direct our teaching that we will give full value to this large minority (or small majority) without deprivation to the future historians? Isn't history the best subject in the curriculum for teaching the making of outlines, and are not outlines of value in many studies other than history? Should not school history have as a primary objective certain training in the use of textbooks and reference books, since books are to such a large extent the laboratory of history? Professor Wirth dismissed with a smile the quoted objective of "Training in the use of the table of contents." Yet will not intelligent use of a table of contents be of more value to the average student than will a detailed knowledge of the Trans-Atlantic routes of the early explorers? Have you ever tested a class of high school seniors on the use of table of contents and index in their textbook? What better means is there of training students in reading methods than experience in the history course where nearly the whole material for study and discussion must come from reading? If the notebook is an almost universal tool in the search for knowledge, does not the history

course bear a fair share of the burden of making it an effective tool, skillfully used?

If objectives of the nature referred to above are to be accepted as primary, or given importance in the secondary group, will not the teachers' colleges and the textbook writers do more to enable us to set standards and measure achievements? Work is progressing along this line, but is it as yet sufficiently divorced from the factual tests of the college entrance examinations? Are we prepared to test skill as well as information resulting from our history courses? Perhaps of the tests now available the reading tests in history seem best suited to such a purpose. Many of the reasoning and judgment tests are still too closely tied to memorization of facts (which should,

of course, be tested for its own value). Professor Wirth stressed judgment training as one of his main objectives. If we accept this and ally with it "historical mindedness," should we not ask of our textbook writers that they be more ready to use such phrases as "Probably," "Possibly," "It may be," "From limited evidence," "Historians conjecture," rather than to relate categorically matters in which the graduate schools still express doubts?

Finally, is there value in this paradox: may we, by adopting "secondary" objectives as our primary teaching aims, ensure a more certain accomplishment of our "primary" objectives, and find a road of progress in history teaching where we can more clearly see and count the milestones?

Systematic Teaching of High School History

BY HOWARD E. WILSON, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO, ILL.

History teaching in the University of Chicago High School is characterized by three fundamental concepts: (1) the unitary organization of subject-matter; (2) the application of the "mastery formula" of teach, test, reteach, and retest; and (3) the development and application of a systematic classroom procedure calculated to attain the teaching objectives sought. The scientific theory of teaching which underlies these concepts is essentially that developed by Henry C. Morrison, Superintendent of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago. The teacher or administrator who is interested in the body of principles and practices guiding the teaching is referred to the recent volume of Mr. Morrison's, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary Schools*.¹ Additional literature of outstanding importance on the subject will be found in articles by H. C. Hill and A. F. Barnard in "Studies in Secondary Education" contained in *Educational Monograph Number One* issued by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago.

The two sections of the paper which follow this introductory statement will sketch briefly the teaching procedure discussed at length in these references. The paper will attempt to do two things: first, to outline in general terms the teaching procedure developed by Professor Morrison; and second, to present an example of the procedure as it was applied in a specific unit of work in a history course at about the sophomore level in the University High School.

I. A SYSTEMATIC PROCEDURE FOR THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Units in history have been defined as "the larger significant movements in human history which go far to explain the society in which he (the pupil) lives, and which develop in him a reasoning attitude toward the social world of today...."² Again, the unit is "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment....capable of being understood rather

than capable merely of being remembered."³ It is, perhaps, fair to say that the core of a unit is a significant product or principle in the evolution of society, such, for instance, as the industrial revolution or the rise of nationalism during the nineteenth century. In the high school we cannot expect to make historically erudite scholars of our pupils, but we can and must expect to make them intelligent in attitude toward the outstanding accomplishments made in man's long struggle of learning to live in harmony with his environment. These outstanding accomplishments, or the principles which underlie them, together with sufficient assimilative and illustrative material to make them identifiable and comprehensible for high school pupils, become the units which, when arranged in a logical series, compose the history courses.

For teaching purposes the first task is to discover the unit and then arrange in as efficient manner as possible the historical data best calculated to interpret it. The divisions of thought composing the unit we may call its elements; each element should awaken a realization in the pupil of some principle or series of events which will throw light upon the understanding which should result from a study of the unit. In studying a unit the class takes up these elements one by one, giving to each a period of intensive study. In order best to manage the study each member of the class must be given, either by dictation or in mimeographed form, a "guidance outline" of the unit's work, and a list of specific reading references for each element in the outline. A third piece of material given to the pupil is a "work sheet" embodying a set of problems and exercises carefully selected as most suitable for bringing about the desired learning objective of the unit.

Then at the beginning of the unit the teacher must have three matters clearly in mind and ready for use at the proper time. These three pedagogical pre-

requisites are (1) a clear understanding of the underlying idea of the unit of study, (2) an exact knowledge of where the proper assimilative material for the pupil's use may be found, and (3) a well-planned set of exercises which will place the pupil in most efficient contact with the essentials of the unit. Teaching, then, proceeds by the five, well-defined steps described below.

1. *Exploration.* Obviously before any systematic teaching can be carried on one must know what teaching is needed. The first step in the work of a unit is that of finding out what pupils already know about it. This is done in one or more of a number of ways—oral questioning, scoring of objective tests, or the writing of theme-form examinations. One should bear in mind, however, that in any of these activities of exploration no attempt is made to impart instruction; the essential purpose of the questioning or writing is to arrive at some definitely comprehended point from which instruction may begin.

2. *Presentation.* After the instructor has found out what teaching is necessary in order to cause his pupils to understand the unit, the next step is to orient the pupil in his attack on the selected body of material and to give him a general conception of the fundamental significance of a proper interpretation of the material. Presentation, which is designed to do this, consists of two activities. First, in a brief, vigorous lecture the instructor seeks to introduce the unit to his class in as interesting and significant a manner as possible, tries to connect the material to be studied with what the pupils have previously studied, and at the same time gives an overview of the unit. Immediately following the lecture the pupil develops in a written paper his own conception of the ideas presented by the teacher. This is in the way of a test to make sure that the pupil has grasped the general concept the instructor has in mind.

In accordance with the corrective teaching element in the mastery concept, no pupil should be allowed to proceed in the unit's activities until he has given evidence of the comprehension of the presentation lecture. This may mean repeating the lecture with the disclosures of the pupils' papers in mind, to the whole class or to small groups within the class several times, but it is a necessary step. Naturally, the pupil cannot be expected to do satisfactory work in later stages of the unit if he approaches those stages with the inadequate apperceptive mass which lack of comprehension of the presentation would imply.

3. *Assimilation.* As soon as a pupil has written a satisfactory presentation paper he may begin the active assimilation of the elements of the unit. The purpose of assimilation is implied in its name; the pupil is at work for himself with the purpose of assimilating into his consciousness a sufficient body of material to cause him to *understand* the central theme implied in the unit. Assimilation consists of the manifold activities of reading, writing, consulting

with the instructor, talking, and listening, through all of which the pupil is brought into proper contact with bodies of assimilative material in such a way that he sees through it to the significant interpretation behind and beyond it.

It will be noted, of course, that pupils proceed through assimilation individually, and that variation in their rate of progress appears. In reality the classroom has been converted into a laboratory where procedure has all the characteristics of intensive supervised study. Some pupils will complete their study of a given body of material earlier than others, and these pupils may be excused from the "minimal essentials" of the unit as soon as they have given evidence of the presence of the desired learning product. Evidence will be given in the form of a series of tests, infrequent individual consultations with the instructor, and in the extensive bodies of written work each pupil will do. The pupil who has given evidence of learning may be sent to the library to do free reading, or better still he may be encouraged to undertake some supplementary enterprise connected with the unit. But the variation among pupils which makes this possible is not nearly as great as much of the current pedagogical literature would lead us to believe. Experience seems to show, as will be indicated later, that the members of an unselected group will work within a fairly close range.

4. *Organization.* When practically all the members of a class have completed the assimilation, and a battery of tests gives evidence of the presence of the desired learning product, the scattered members of the group are drawn together again. Notes and books are laid aside and each pupil writes an organization paper. This is simply an outline of the whole body of assimilative material which has been covered by the pupil in arriving at an understanding of the unit. The outline is an extensive piece of work and a severe test of the actual assimilation of the unit. Naturally, if a paper is unsatisfactory it must be rewritten after further study of the material in which it failed.

5. *Recitation.* The final step in the teaching of a unit is recitation. This has been defined as "an oral or written presentation in concise form of the elemental facts of the unit..., the gleanings of the choicest fruits from the whole stock of impressions..., attitudes, etc., that have become a part of the pupil through his contact with the study materials of the unit."⁴ In some cases this recitation will be in the nature of a floor talk on some comprehensive aspect of the unit's work; in many cases it will be written. It represents the pupil's final expression in the classroom of his individual conception of the theme of the unit.

The procedure sketched above is the basis for work in each unit of each course in history in the University High School. In order to make the procedure clearer the following section of the paper will present a specific analysis of its operation in a given unit of work.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM PROCEDURE IN A SPECIFIC UNIT OF WORK

The Survey of Civilization course offered in the sophomore year at the University High School is made up of eight units drawn from the fields of ancient and medieval history. The fourth unit of the course is called "The Ancient Romans: Consolidators of the World." The guidance outline of the unit, as prepared by H. C. Hill and A. F. Barnard, is as follows:

1. The early Romans and their home: the site of Rome—the seven hills, the Tiber, the Mediterranean; the position of Italy and its advantages—trade conquest; conquest of Italy.
2. How the Romans conquered the Mediterranean world: the Roman army; Spain, Carthage, and the Punic Wars; Greece and Macedonia; Egypt and Western Asia; Gaul and Britain.
3. How the Romans organized and governed their conquests: government under the Republic—Senate, consuls, tribunes, assemblies; government under the empire—the city of Rome, Italy; the provinces; the Roman Peace; roads and communication; law and citizenship.
4. Roman civilization: industry; slavery; religion—attitude toward Christianity; education; games and amusements; homes; art and architecture—Forum, Colosseum, Circus Maximus, triumphal arches, palaces; literature—poetry, oratory, history, philosophy; our debt to Rome.
5. Why Rome declined: slavery; luxury; corruption; taxation; decrease in population; incoming of barbarians.

A class of twenty-four members began work on this unit on January 4, 1927, and all but two of the class members had given evidence of mastering it by February 11th, six weeks later. In Chart I is presented a bird's-eye view of the progress of work during that time.

Exploration on the unit, occupying one class hour of fifty minutes, was made up of two kinds of testing, oral and written. In the oral work such questions were asked as:

What nation preserved for us the great achievements of the ancient states of Egypt and Greece after those states declined?

Where is Rome? What is it?

Who were some of the great men of Rome?

Who was Caesar? What did he do that makes his name known to most of us of an alien land two thousand years after his death?

What was Rome's outstanding contribution to civilization?

These questions were of varied range of difficulty and covered a wide field of Roman history. In addition to the oral questioning each pupil was asked to write a brief paragraph telling of what he had studied or read about Roman history on any previous occasion. In the third place, an objective test of the multiple-response type was given and the scores recorded for subsequent use in teaching.

The presentation lecture, occupying about fifteen minutes, was an elaboration of the following outline.

- I. The rise of Rome.
 - a. The little village on the Tiberian hills.
 - b. The Roman kingdom.

- c. The establishment of the Republic.
 - d. The Roman Empire.
- II. The character of Rome.
 - a. As a conquering nation.
 - b. As a governing nation.
 - c. As a civilizing nation.
 - III. The fall of Rome.
 - a. Causes of decay.
 - b. What Rome did for the world.

The purpose of the lecture was to introduce the unit to the pupil in as friendly and stimulating fashion as possible, and to summarize its central theme, that is, the learning which was the teaching-objective. The presentation tests written by the pupils, the first item of work entered on the chart, were summaries in theme form of this lecture. As there are no separate English composition courses in the University High School, all papers in all courses are read for both English and content. Where there were failures for content in the presentation themes, the lecture was given again the following day; pupils who required this reteaching were taken into the corridor for the few minutes required for the lecture. In the meantime the other members of the class, who had been given a mimeographed copy of the guidance outline with references, began work on the assimilation.

This "work-sheet" was dictated to the class as soon as all members had begun assimilation:

Things To Do:

1. Read:
 - Halleck and Frantz. *Our Nation's Heritage*, pp. 91-138.
 - Robinson and Breasted. *History of Europe, Ancient and Medieval*, pp. 189-289.
2. Construct a time line, based on your reading of these books, showing the chief periods and events in the story of Rome from 750 B. C. to 476 A. D.
3. In connection with Topic I of the guidance outline, write two themes, one on "The Site of Rome," and the other on "The Position of Italy." Each theme may be not more than three-fourths of a page long. In the theme on the "Site of Rome" you should mention (1) its protectability, (2) its food resources, (3) its commercial advantages and disadvantages, (4) its healthfulness, and (5) its beauty of location as compared with that of Athens. In the theme on Italy you should mention (1) its topography, (2) its coastline, (3) its plant products, and (4) its climate. These themes should not be written until after extensive reading from the references on the topic.
4. In connection with Topic II, read extensively on "How the Romans Conquered the Mediterranean World." After you understand the topic write a narrative account of it of from three to five pages. Cite authorities for your statements.
5. Take notes on Topic III, organizing your notes under the sub-topics given in the outline. The notes should be explanatory in character and the set of them should cover not more than six pages.
6. Read thoroughly on Topic IV. There will be no written work on the topic, but a series of tests concerning it will be given.
7. Write a summary paragraph for each of the sub-topics of Topic V. Base your summaries on the accounts of at least three of the books listed in the references.

The record of assimilation is essentially that of five weeks of supervised study of an intensive sort, with every activity focused on the central under-

standing of the unit. Practically all of the writing, reading, and studying were done in the classroom, where facilities for that purpose were provided, so the variation in rate of work represents a fairly accurate picture. This variation is the outstanding revelation made: variation was in two fields, (1) rate of progress, and (2) amount of reteaching required, as revealed by the necessary revisions of written work. It is to be noted that not only is there variation among pupils, but there is wide variation in the work done by the same pupil at different times. Thus Pupil 18 was slightly slower than the average of the class in completing the first item of written work. In the second item of such work she fell even farther behind the class average; and in the third she was still somewhat slow. But in the fourth and fifth she was ahead of the class average. Such a situation as this is entirely normal, and is to be explained by such factors as emotional drive and physical well-being.

It should be noted that the same type of tests discussed in connection with exploration were given repeatedly and individually throughout the assimilation period. A general assimilation test of a comprehensive nature was given to the class as a whole just before the writing of the organization papers. This, and the preceding tests, gave the instructor evidence of the presence of the desired learning product in the case of all pupils except two, who had been falling steadily behind the class throughout assimilation. It should be noted, too, that pupils who had completed the assimilation early were released from class and enabled to spend several days in the study-library, or to write supplementary papers or

do supplementary reading on especially interesting topics.

Organization needs no explanation. In the class under analysis, all the recitations were written. They consisted of a short theme on the subject, "Our Debt to Ancient Rome."

At the end of the unit there had been accumulated considerable trustworthy evidence that twenty-two of the pupils in the class had an intelligent comprehension of the significance of Roman accomplishments in the story of evolving civilization. Only two members of the class did not present such evidence; they were "problem" cases and had to be dealt with outside of the regular class hour. After considerable pedagogical and parental pressure, and the overcoming of certain volitional handicaps, they, too, gave evidence of the presence of the desired learning product.

It is not to be supposed that the activities of the class analyzed here represent the only desirable application of the theory of systematic teaching suggested in the earlier section of this paper. Each class will show its own marked characteristics; there is opportunity and necessity for wide variation in the successful application of the set of principles implied in the theory of teaching set forth above. The record given herewith is only one, but an actual example of systematic procedure in the teaching of history.

¹ Published by the University of Chicago Press in February, 1926.

² Morrison, H. C. *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 189.

³ *Idem.*, p. 182.

⁴ Phipps, G. C. "A Procedure for Mastery Applied to Science Type Subjects." *Chicago Schools Journal*, IX, (November, 1926), p. 94.

A Mock Nominating Convention

DESCRIBED BY RUSSELL L. SHAY, HIGH SCHOOL, PLATTSBURGH, N. Y.

I am taking the liberty of giving you an account of the nominating convention held here in the high school on May 9 and 10, 1927.

There is in this school an organization of boys of Senior and Junior grade, 28 in number, known as the Junto Club. At the beginning of the year it was my lot to be chosen as their faculty advisor. Living in the day of projects and project method, student activities and extra-curricular events, we searched diligently for a program for the year. Among all the suggestions offered, nothing seemed to appeal more than the idea of a National Nominating Convention, and consequently we promptly planned to stage one.

With the 28 boys as a nucleus, we planned to make use of the entire school of 308 students. After gaining permission from the Superintendent and Principal, the first step in the procedure, for the boys, was to gather all information necessary to carry on the project. This necessitated quite a bit of research

work; first, to get the details, and, second, to make the information fit our conditions.

The local limits set were as follows: this work was not to interfere with the regular school work, only two regular auditorium periods were allotted us, and the duty of informing the entire student body was delegated to us. In view of these limits we had to make the actual convention proceedings fit the situation.

The high school is made up of seven home rooms, to each of which was given a State name, these names being selected to represent the following States: Alabama, California, Iowa, New York, Ohio, Texas, and Wisconsin. This selection was somewhat arbitrary, but made so as to include the South, Middle West, and Far West.

The name Nationalist party was used so as not to conflict with the two major parties, and confusion was avoided by the selection of the new name. A permanent committee was chosen and a permanent

chairman and secretary appointed. All the leading parts were taken by the Junto members, and each Junto member was given a specific duty. Each home room was counted as the State delegation, rather than the State population, thus giving us an opportunity to use the entire student body. A Junto member was assigned to each home room as a State chairman. He acted as the spokesman for the respective States during the convention sessions. This meant that if the Junto members were thoroughly prepared, the sessions could be carried on without instructing the whole student body. In fact, a large percentage of the student body had no idea what a convention is.

In order to make it possible for the Juntos to carry on the work, other Junto members were assigned to the different "States" (rooms), and then counted as delegates from those States. Candidates were slated. Campaigning was carried on a week prior to the holding of the convention, and full co-operation on the part of the daily papers was received.

State standards were made, the auditorium was decorated by making use of flags, bunting, and pictures of ex-Presidents. Political propaganda was spread in favor of the candidate from New York and the candidate from California. A broadcasting "mike" was installed and every effort was put forth to make the event realistic.

Plans for a "dark horse" candidate were made, credentials were issued to every delegate, and voting was fixed. The reasons for this complete staging and fixing of procedure was for the sole purpose of having the convention sessions completed within the time limits set by the school administrator. The State chairmen being the spokesmen for each State made the nominating speeches and also did the balloting for their respective States. The four committees were appointed during the first session, and the Committee on Rules and Order of Business was advised to select the unit rule and majority vote for the victorious candidate. Twenty minutes was allotted us for the first session and thirty minutes for the second, during which time the students had full control of all actions within the school, the teachers acting as spectators. The public was invited and many people took advantage of this opportunity. All committee reports were written by pupils themselves.

Many citizens greatly appreciated this effort on the part of the boys. It was instructive and self-

enacted. In fact, at this time of the year a repeated program would be very effective, inasmuch as the two major parties in the United States meet similarly this summer. A larger school would make the project more interesting.

MAY 2, 1927.

To the Teachers and Students of the High School:

The Junto Club, under the direction of the Social Science Department, wishes to "stage" a National Nominating Convention, using the entire student body, to be held during the Auditorium period on May 9th and 10th. It is hereby requested that the co-operation of each one to make this a success will be forthcoming. There will be newspaper publicity and other advertisement, so that the efforts of the school must be of the best.

The name Nationalist Party will be used. Junto members will make up the National Committee. Each home room will have a "State" name, namely: 20, Alabama; 21, Iowa; 23, Texas; 24, Wisconsin; 31, California; 32, New York; 35, Ohio. The students in each room will be the delegates from that "State." The State Chairman will be a Junto member. Hence, there will be Juntos in each "State" group, acting as leaders and supervisors in procedure.

The entire acting will be done by students. Campaigning will begin May 4th. Further information will be given in the proper time and order.

Auditorium will be decorated appropriately. Newspaper publicity must be approved by Mr. Shay. All campaigning will be done within the building.

Each "State" will have one member, except New York (2), on each committee: Rules and Order of Business; Permanent Organization; Credentials; Platform and Resolutions.

I. Procedure before first session.

Chairman informs delegates, issues formal credentials, and plans the work of his "State." (May 6th)—(Unit rule to apply and only two candidates to be nominated.)

II. Procedure in first session.

- a. Seating same as for music period.
- b. Chairman of National Committee presides.
- c. Secretary reads official call.
- d. Chairman names temporary chairman and other officers.
- e. Temporary chairman escorted to platform—makes speech three minutes.
- f. Committees formed.
- g. End of first session.

III. Procedure in second session.

- a. Receiving committee reports: Rules, Credentials, Permanent Organization.
- b. Permanent chairman escorted to platform—makes speech three minutes.
- c. Report of Platform Committee.
- d. Nominating of candidates.
- e. Balloting.
- f. End of second session.

Skills, Habits, and Drill in the Teaching of High School Economics

BY EUGENE B. RILEY, CHAIRMAN HISTORY DEPARTMENT, THOMAS JEFFERSON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

Until quite recently educational thought has been concerned to a great extent with the development of those broad principles of pedagogy which serve as the basis of educational practice. It is for precisely that reason that pedagogy has been held in contempt by many who have expressed the fervent wish that some day "educators" would get down to "brass

tacks." Perhaps the time has come to give consideration to the interpretation of the basic principles of pedagogy in the light of the needs of specific high school subjects. As one of the subjects which has been added to the curriculum in many places within the past few years, Economics has not suffered from either an extensive or an intensive

cultivation of the field of methodology. Inexperienced teachers of Economics (and they are legion—former German, Latin, or mathematics teachers in many instances) may not seriously object to being let in on some of the tricks of the trade.

The teacher of Economics is confronted with the task not only of increasing the pupils' usable knowledge, but also of directing their abilities so that their habits, skills, and attitudes may be modified. In this two-fold task the teacher must make use of drill. For the purpose of this discussion, we shall consider skills as a form of habit based on drill. Psychologists tell us that there are three types of skills that are important in this connection, namely: (1) physical or motor skills; (2) automatic fact associations or memorized subject-matter, and (3) mental method skills.

Let us illustrate each of these types.

Physical or Motor Skills. In this type mental activity is to be found in the co-ordination of mind and body. A problem in market price which requires for its solution the construction of a graph is an example of this form of learning. One such problem follows:

Find by means of a graph the quantity of goods sold and the market price:

Demand	Price (cents per lb.)	Supply
5000	2	500
4000	4	1000
3500	6	2000
3000	8	2500
2500	10	3000
2000	11	3500
1500	13	4000
1000	15	5000

Automatic fact associations or memorized subject matter. This type of learning involves the memorizing of the material. In economics this memorization should be preceded and accompanied by a great amount of thought. Definitions of technical terms as utility, par of exchange, should be understood before they are memorized. Laws in Economics, too, such as the law of diminishing returns and Gresham's law should be thoroughly understood before being committed to memory.

Mental-Method Skills. In this form of learning we are concerned with the technique used by the learner. Pupils must be taught the use of indexes and bibliographies. Of greater value, perhaps, in mastering material is the art of getting at the central thought of the selection. Sometimes this can be facilitated through the use of analysis (outlining) and in other instances by synthesis, illustration, comparison, and contrast. The study and explanation of the following statement will involve the use of several of these mental-methods.

It is a mistake to say that the farmers of this country cannot compete with the farmers of other countries, or are in danger of being reduced to the standards of living that prevail among agricultural laborers in India or elsewhere. The fact is that they have been meeting that competition in the markets of the world in all the years of the past, and farming lands in the Middle West had advanced to relatively high prices before the war, notwithstanding that competition. Show the relation of these facts to the question of a protective tariff on farm products.

The acquisition of these different types of skills involves to a greater or less extent the various laws of habit formation of which the most important element is drill. Probably every reader of these lines has learned at some time or other the laws of habit formation as formulated by James. We quote them at this point and hope to show how they can be applied to the teaching of the topic: The Factors Affecting the Rate of Exchange in International Trade.

1. The Law of Momentum: James says "In the acquisition of a new habit or the leaving off of an old one, we must take care to launch ourselves with as strong and decided an initiative as possible."

2. The Law of Perseverance: "Never suffer an exception to occur till the new habit is securely rooted in your life."

Repetition: "Seize the very first possible opportunity to act on every resolution you make."

3. The Law of Repetition: "Keep the faculty of effort alive in you by a little gratuitous exercise every day."

The first law should make the teacher realize the desirability of securing the pupil's attention and interest at the start. In other words, motivate the drill. In teaching the topic, the factors affecting the rate of exchange, the pupil's interest in the subject may be aroused by asking such questions as these:

Would the grocer accept a Canadian quarter? How much would he give you for it? How much is it worth?

The Law of Perseverance teaches the importance of not permitting any mistakes, while the Law of Repetition emphasizes the fact that drill is necessary if accuracy is to be secured. The following questions are offered in the belief that they challenge the pupils sufficiently to stimulate and hold their interest during the period of drill.

DRILL

Factors affecting the Rate of Exchange

1. Explain the following statement: "The European Exchanges have all made new low records during the past year, the pound sterling from about \$3.84 on December 12th, to about \$3.40, from which it reacted to above \$3.80."
2. Assume that sterling exchange is at par and English investors buy \$100,000,000 worth of American bonds. Explain the immediate effect on sterling exchange in New York. Explain the effect on sterling exchange as interest on these bonds is paid.
3. State whether or not each of the following will tend to increase or to decrease imports of goods into the United States, giving in each case a reason for your answer:
 - (a) Foreign travel by Americans.
 - (b) Travel in America by foreigners.
 - (c) Payment of interest by Europe to the United States.
 - (d) Shipping American goods in foreign ships.
 - (e) Gold imports from Europe.
4. "Overshadowing every other development in the London financial situation was the rapid advance in sterling at New York. There are numerous important factors which account, in the London view, for this decided and continuous improvement. The first place, in London's judgment, must be given to the great alteration in favor of Great Britain of the trade balance between England and America. As American business men are well aware, the shrinkage in merchandise business between the two countries, both in quantity and value, has been almost

sensational, and its result has been an immense reduction of the excess of imports."

- (a) What is meant by *sterling*?
- (b) Explain what is meant by *trade balance*.
- (c) What is merchandise business? What other kind of business may effect the trade balance?
- (d) Explain how the alteration in the trade balance has caused the rate of sterling to advance at New York.

5. A rich capitalist country can afford to import more than it exports. Why?
6. Show whether or not a statement of the merchandise imports and exports of a country gives a complete picture of a country's foreign business.
7. It has long been recognized that the post-war position of the United States as a creditor nation must result in an increased proportion of imports in its total foreign trade. Explain.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

"The Selection and Provision of History Books for Elementary Schools: A memorandum forwarded by the Council of the Historical Association to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education" is published in the October number of *History* (London). Certain distinctions between types of schools are mentioned; the outstanding distinguishing feature between public elementary schools, other than central schools, and secondary schools is that in the former the great majority of pupils finish their education careers at the age of fourteen years; many pupils remain in the central schools, particularly in London, until they reach the age of sixteen years. Qualified pupils are now transferred from the elementary to secondary and central schools at the age of eleven years.

The principal problem is how to give the pupil the best possible understanding of history within the limits of the time before he finishes his formal education. The memorandum points out that experience has indicated that the pupil should not begin the formal consecutive study of history before eleven years of age, although some schools now begin such study with pupils of nine years; further, the statement is made that the development of the power of consecutive study comes during the pupil's eleventh year. A change in the method of teaching at ten years is assumed, as well as a new organization of the syllabus at eleven years.

The aims in teaching history to pupils, seven to nine years of age, include imagination, interest, and a fund of information for use in the later formal and consecutive study of history. The materials for instruction are simple stories, mainly about historically significant people, incidents, and customs; they must be self-contained, interesting, and true. The teacher must tell and retell stories from well-written materials, with pictures, maps, and notes which are historically accurate. Stories in simple form should be published in little booklets, which would also provide opportunities for the use of colors in drawings of costumes.

Stories should form the materials for instruction for children of nine to ten years of age, but they should be more impersonal in narrative, broader in scope in dealing with material surroundings. The method should be modified to bridge the gap from story telling to more formal and consecutive study. The pupils should read widely from books of historical stories, in the form of fiction or stories retold from the sources. The range of personages and incidents should be broadened to include English and world history—ancient, medieval, and modern. Attention in selection of stories must be given to individual differences of pupils in ability to read, intelligence, and social background.

Pupils ten to eleven years of age should begin the consecutive treatment of history without attention to political history. A sketch of world history or an outline of English social history would be suitable courses. The aim is the collecting and placing of facts and materials with which pupils have some familiarity in order to appreciate the significance of facts and personages, rather than the acquisition of new information. Development of a time sense

and the use of charts are important features of the work.

Pupils at eleven years of age should be able to pass to the new school with a command of leading events and personages. Appreciation of facts should lead to interpretation on the part of the more capable pupils. All pupils should do much work for themselves, following the individual plan of instruction. Two classes of books are needed: (1) books for pupils' independent work—biographies, narrative treatment of special periods and subjects, reprints, historical tales, collections of illustrative materials; (2) textbooks covering the whole period, to serve as a framework into which the results of independent work can be fitted. Characteristics of the textbook should be selection of facts, proportion, and historical accuracy. It should give suggestions for further reading; contain suitable illustrative materials, charts, diagrammatic maps, and a glossary.

The program of studies in the new school, depending upon whether the course is four or five years in length, should begin with a year of world history, followed by three years of English history, or the three years of English history should come first, followed by a year of social and economic history.

Biography in the school curriculum has long held an important place "in history, in literature, and in character-training." For this reason "A Study of the Biographical Material Recommended for the Curriculum of the Elementary School," completed as a master's thesis by Sister Mary Josephine McDermott, is of interest to teachers of the social studies (M. A. thesis, University of Chicago, June, 1927). The chief purposes of the study are: "(1) To determine the nature of the biographical material included in the elementary-school curriculum, (2) To note the sources of this material, (3) To gauge the relative emphasis upon the classes of personages who are presented to pupils by means of biography, (4) To discover the grade placement of material."

To accomplish these purposes the author of the study examined twenty-seven representative courses of study for elementary schools and five standard book lists. From these sources a list of all biographies recommended or referred to was made, the list including individual biographies, collective biographies, and incidental biographies. After tabulation of the material the conclusion was reached that "In the recommendation of specific books, there is no general agreement among courses of study, no marked agreement between courses of study and book lists, and comparatively little agreement between individual book lists."

The next step of the investigator was to list and classify all personages mentioned in the courses of study. The survey reveals the occupations represented by the characters, the comparative emphasis upon American and foreign statesmen, the prominence given to women, prominence given to Biblical characters, prominence given to characters in the World War, and the ideals stressed by means of relative emphasis upon personalities and occupations. The conclusions drawn from this section of the study are vari-

ous; illustrative of them is the statement that "The ideals stressed by means of relative emphasis upon occupations, if the number of names included is an index to the importance attached to each, are ability to lead in political affairs, ability to lead in military and naval achievements, ability to act as explorer, pioneer, or colonizer, ability to write, willingness to aid others by money or personal service." Furthermore, it is "reassuring to note that men and women of many nations and of widely separated times are given prominence."

The concluding section of the survey deals with grade placement of biographical materials and reveals a rather chaotic lack of agreement. It accentuates the imperative need, pointed out by the entire thesis, of careful and prolonged study of the entire problem of the selection of adequate reading materials for social studies courses.

The training of two-years diploma course teachers of the social studies at the Eastern Illinois State Teachers' College is described by Mary Harden in an article, entitled, "Training Teachers for the Teaching of the Social Studies in the Public Schools," in the December number of *Educational Administration and Supervision*. All prospective teachers enrolled in the two-year diploma course are required to pursue two consecutive terms of history, either American or medieval and modern, according to the student's choice. There is no special methods course; the student must depend upon observation of the instructor's methods in the content course. All students who are not high school graduates are required to take a one-term course in geography, while high school graduates may select a course from a related field. Education courses include three-quarters of psychology and one-quarter of both principles of education and classroom management.

Students, during their first year, spend some time in observation in the elementary school. They are required to do 36 weeks of practice-teaching in the training school, 24 weeks of the work being elective as to grade and course. Every student makes a bibliography of subject-matter, a detailed informational outline of material to be taught, and plans for units of work and daily lesson plans. A series of four types of conferences are arranged for students during the period of practice-teaching in order to evaluate the teaching done by students, to evaluate observations, to discuss problems of teaching, and to fill in those gaps in the students' equipment which will tend to make them the best possible teachers.

Citizenship Training in Elementary Schools, by Ellie Marcus Marx, Principal of the Henry Clay School, Norfolk, Va., is a description and discussion of the activities carried forward in the Henry Clay School. The concept of citizenship training, which seems to mean "all things to all men" in many situations, is limited in the volume, as follows:

"Our philosophy is not that citizenship can be taught directly any more than culture can be acquired by aiming at it directly. Citizenship, like culture, is a by-product."

The volume contains descriptions of many situations in classroom and extra-curricular activities, which are handled in such a manner as to provide for citizenship training through response to situations in group action, writing of papers, making of models, and other examples of the construction of materials. Excellent photographs, excerpts from written work, and reports of the activities of school organizations tend to make the book a fertile source of ideas for elementary school principals and teachers. There is no "theorizing" about activities; the printed record shows by implication the theoretical basis for the activities described. Price, \$1.25. Send orders direct to the school.

Despite the efforts of progressive instructors in special methods courses and competent teachers to break down the dependence of pupils and teachers on the "one textbook approach" to the study of history, it is unfortunately true that the history horizon of many pupils is still limited by

the study of one textbook, followed by a pointless and unmotivated inquisitorial question-and-answer procedure which masquerades under the title of "recitation." One of the attempts made to improve the situation is the preparation of teacher's manuals to aid the teacher. Charles E. Martz, in *A Teacher's Handbook in American History* (Cleveland, Ohio: The Harter School Supply Co., 1927. Price, 60 cents. Eastern depository: E. E. Babb & Co., 212 Summer Street, Boston, Mass.), has provided an introductory statement on the teaching of history, selection and presentation of subject-matter, the recitation, and helps for the teacher. The body of the manual is divided into 28 lessons, based on pupils' manuals written by the author. Each lesson contains suggestions on the interpretation of content materials, teaching methods, the connection between lessons, and the treatment of problems encountered in the teaching of the different lessons.

The Making of the American Nation: A History of the United States from 1492 to 1795 is a pupil's manual written by the same author. It is divided into 34 chapters, each of which includes an introductory statement, an assignment of page references in ten textbooks, and a list of problems to be answered. Other items are outline maps, topics to be remembered, topics for further study, tables to be developed, and outlines to be made. A second pupil's manual, *Our Nation Since Washington: A History of the United States from 1789 to the Present*, completes the series. Both work books are intended for junior high school use. The price of each is 68 cents.

Martz has also written a *Review of American History*, published by the same company. A summary of important facts is presented. These are outlines of some subject-matter and several suggestive charts. (Price, 60 cents.)

Olive Bucks and Grace McNealy have prepared *My Work Book in Early American History*, intended for use in the intermediate grades, and published by The Harter School Supply Company. The work book includes brief presentations of facts on topics in early American history, questions to be answered by pupils, list of sketches, space for drawings by pupils, brief dialogues, suggestions and space for brief compositions, plays, word study, and a variety of other activities. (Price, 48 cents.)

The Berlin Correspondent of *The Manchester Guardian Weekly*, in the December 30th number, presents a review of Dr. Siegfried Kaweran's *Denkschrift über die deutschen Geschichte und Lesebücher vor allem seit 1923* (Berlin: Heusen and Co.). The review, entitled, "German History Books," states that Dr. Kaweran has studied all the officially authorized textbooks, and has canvassed more than 300 publishers. The standard set for the study was Article 148 of the German Constitution, based on the promotion of international reconciliation and tolerance for the opinions of other nations. Five specific questions were then set as guideposts in the evaluation of textbooks.

The principal findings, as reported by the reviewer, include: (1) some authors show an anti-French, anti-British, and anti-socialist bias; (2) many treat the Poles unfairly; (3) some authors stress the point that England's relations with Germany were based on fear and envy; (4) some authors treat the Balkan situation just prior to the world war as relatively unimportant, while others distort the facts of the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia and the Serbian reply; (5) one author mentions "the deliberate violation" of the German frontier by the French, and thus "enticed" Germany into a declaration of war; (6) the politicians are frequently blamed for Germany's defeat; (7) there is an intemperate denunciation of the colored troops in the Rhineland; (8) few or no books have a republican or socialist bias, although many disclose a conservative and monarchist bias; (9) quite a number are fair and objective; (10) the author, in general, is optimistic and feels that the teaching of history in German schools, with many deplorable exceptions, is tending to encourage independent thought.

The reviewer, in his introductory paragraphs, repeats the well-known fact that Dr. Hanisch, the Prussian Minister

of Education, in 1919 prohibited the history books used in the Prussian schools. Due to the fact that no new books were available, the old books continued in use and the order was ignored. The results of Dr. Kaweran's study of the new books are illuminating, and they parallel many of the biases found in early American history textbooks in the treatment of the American Revolution.

The Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the Missouri State School Administrative Association (University of Missouri Bulletin, Vol. XXVII, No. 41, November 1, 1926), contains two addresses by R. M. Tryon. The first address, entitled, "Social Studies in the Curriculum, Grades I to VI," includes a résumé of certain aspects and problems of the formulation of a curriculum in the social studies curriculum for elementary schools. With the development of the junior high school elementary school, people must work in terms of a new school and a new situation; the social studies are slowly moving toward the most prominent place in the curriculum of the elementary school; curriculum-makers, taking account of the literature on the curriculum and on special subjects, must still, however, proceed on the basis of expert opinion, best practices, and special investigations.

Tryon proposes the organization of a course of study in terms of units of content materials for the different grades, as follows: Grade I—the home, the school, the farm, the community, holiday celebrations, civic virtues; Grade II—primitive Aryan life, Indian life, holiday celebrations, civic virtues; Grade III—local life, local pioneer life, pioneer life in another section of the country; Grade IV—primitive life, oriental life, Greek life, Roman life; Grade V—medieval life in England and on the continent, colonial life with a comparison with medieval life; Grade VI—United States history. The waste of time and duplication of effort often found in the early grades in the use of holiday celebrations are mentioned. United States history is included in Grade VI in order to provide the course for those pupils whose school career ends at the close of this grade. A detailed list of items essential to a good course of study is presented.

The second address, "The Social Studies Curriculum in Junior and Senior High Schools," includes a brief statement of the findings of pertinent investigations, a brief survey of present practices in curriculum-making, a proposed program of studies by grades, and a list of essential items to be found in each course. The proposed program in history includes: Grade VII—world history prior to 1607; Grade VIII—American history (chronological arrangement); Grade IX—American history (topical treatment); Grade X—world history; Grade XI—American history; Grade XII—modern European history, ancient history, or English history. The program in social studies other than history includes: Grade VII—introductory social science; Grade VIII—community civics; Grade IX—economic civics; Grade X—sociology; Grade XI—economics; Grade XII—political science.

The entire October number of *The New Era* (London) is devoted to a report of the Locarno World Conference on New Education, held in August, 1927, entitled, "The True Meaning of Freedom in Education." While the entire report is a very valuable presentation of progressive tendencies in education, the part of most interest to teachers of the social studies is the summary of addresses delivered before the History Section. The following persons contributed: Dr. Harold Rugg, The Lincoln School, New York City; Mons. P. Otlet, Palais Mondial, Brussels; Miss Cornell, Francis W. Parker School, Chicago; Miss Hallsten-Kallia, International Co-operation Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva; Dr. D. Mackay, Scotland; Madame L. Florov, Roumania. The section on "Freedom Through Method" contains some interesting summaries on the project method, the Decroly method, the plan used in the Infants' Department of the Marlborough School, Chelsea, London, the Winnetka, Ill., technique; the plan of the St. Martin's Girls' Council School, Dover, England; the Dalton plan, the Jena plan, and the Howard plan.

Two recent numbers of *Information Service*, published by the Foreign Policy Association, 18 East Forty-fifth Street, New York City, are of special interest at the present time. Raymond Leslie Buell, Research Director, in Special Supplement No. 4, entitled, "The United States and Latin-America: A Suggested Program," presents a summary analysis of important episodes in our relations with Latin-American countries and suggests a program for future relations as follows: recognition of *de facto* governments, "establishment of a permanent claims tribunal," and a statement of policy by the President that there will be no intervention without consultation with "the Governing Board of the Pan-American Union." The January 20th number is entitled "Mexico, the Caribbean, and Tacna-Arica: Current Relations with the United States." It contains important summaries of outstanding facts and pronouncements, including many direct quotations. Eight tables give in concise form data on the economic, financial, commercial, and constitutional relations of the United States and Latin-America, which are not otherwise obtainable, except through considerable investigation. The *Information Service* of the Foreign Policy Association is an indispensable publication for progressive teachers of the social studies. Materials published are authentic, unbiased appraisals of current world affairs, the organization has "no axe to grind." Subscription rate is \$5.00 per year; single copies, 25 cents.

The November number of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (3622-24 Locust Street, Philadelphia) is devoted in part to "Europe in 1927: an Economic Survey," by Ernest Minor Patterson. Dr. Patterson was sent to Europe as a special research fellow by the Academy to gather facts and to study the economic situation in different European countries. The materials are presented in ten chapters, numbering 123 pages. Teachers who read a previous report by Dr. Patterson, published in the November, 1922, number of *The Annals*, will welcome this report. Part II of the same publication includes eight articles by distinguished European authorities on such problems as currency, labor, the consumer, and the Cartel problem. The "Report of the World Economic Conference Adopted on May 23, 1927," numbering 32 pages, is also included in this issue.

The July issue is devoted to the foreign policy of the United States, and the January, 1928, issue includes a discussion of Muscle Shoals, the St. Lawrence developmental program, and other similar projects. *The Annals* is published bi-monthly. Subscription rate is \$5.00 per year; single copies, \$2.00.

One of the most promising conditions in current world affairs is the increasing interest on the part of modern youth in the promotion of a better understanding between nations through the discussion of international problems. A new pamphlet, prepared by J. B. Matthews and Sylvanus M. Duvall, entitled, *Conflict or Co-operation: A Study Outline* (The American Committee, World Youth Peace Congress, 109 East Ninth Street, New York City), contains considerable information on current international problems, arranged in condensed form. There are twelve chapters on such topics as nationalism, imperialism, propaganda, areas of conflict, and the opportunities for modern youth. A good bibliography is appended to each chapter. While the study outline was prepared for use as a part of the preliminary activities for the World Youth Peace Congress to be held in Eerde, Holland, August 17-26, 1928, it will be of interest to progressive teachers of the social studies. Price: single copy, 25 cents; ten copies, \$2.00.

The southern cotton mills have attracted considerable attention in trade and social welfare publications for some time. Paul Blanshard, in an 88-page pamphlet, entitled, *Labor in Southern Cotton Mills*, presents data and impressions gained from a first-hand investigation, supplemented by facts and figures culled from newspapers, trade magazines, investigations by other persons, and state and government documents. The pamphlet is published by the

New Republic, Inc., 421 West Twenty-first Street, New York City. Price 25 cents.

The Educational Department of the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association, 6 East Thirty-ninth Street, New York City, has recently issued a 37-page mimeographed "Outline for a Model Assembly of the League of Nations." The material has been prepared as a guide for high schools and colleges that wish to conduct a model assembly as a part of their social science activities. There is an introductory statement, followed by suggestions for preliminary preparation, a list of practical suggestions, a copy of an agenda, extracts from the rules of procedure of the Assembly, a section on phraseology, lists of references, and the seating plan of the Seventh Assembly. It is a very comprehensive collection of concrete material.

The same organization publishes regularly a news sheet of items of current information concerning the League of Nations. It also sponsors a national competitive examination on the League, which includes a free trip to Europe for the winner of first prize. The second examination is scheduled for March 16, 1928. Write for announcements.

The Bulletin and Italiana, published monthly by the Italy American Society, 25 West Forty-third Street, New York City, contains a summary of recent events in Italy and news items of interest concerning Italians in the United States. Every number contains a current bibliography of volumes and periodical references about Italy published in the English language. The subscription rate is \$2.00 per year. A bibliography of 1207 volumes, entitled, "Italiana Bibliography of Books in the English Language Relating to Italy," has been published recently. The price is \$1.00. Teachers of European history will find these publications useful additions to their libraries.

The November number of *The University High School Journal* (Oakland, California) contains a 46-page account of "Suggestions and Materials for Teaching England's Responsible Ministry Type of Modern Government," written by Lynn M. Barrett. The article contains charts, cartoons drawn by pupils, floor plans of the House of Representatives, House of Commons, and Chamber of Deputies, tables of information for comparisons, a list of catch-words on the English government, summaries of changes in the constitution, summaries of the place and functions of the Cabinet, and much other pertinent material about the British Government. There is a bibliography of books and periodical references suitable for use by high school pupils.

The tests entitled "Background in Social Studies, Form A and Form B," prepared by Tyler Kepner, Director of Social Studies, Brookline, Mass., have been published in revised form and in a new format by Ginn and Company. While the tests are diagnostic in character, tentative norms will be provided later for teachers who wish to use the tests for other purpose. The tests are published in pads of 30 copies, with a cover page, which contains a statement of purpose, the method of construction, and use, followed by a key and suggestions for the use of results, and a class record blank on the back cover page. The price is 60 cents per pad of 30 copies.

Social Science, a quarterly magazine published at Winfield, Kansas, by Pi Gamma Mu, National Social Science Honor Society, contains a wide variety of articles, which include summaries of research projects, discussion of pertinent problems in the social sciences, and editorials. The current number contains a series of articles, reviews of fifty-two books, and brief book notes on fifty-eight additional volumes. The magazine is a substantial publication. Every number includes more than one hundred pages of material. The subscription rate is \$2.00 per year.

A new pamphlet by Kirby Page, entitled, *Dollars and World Peace: A Consideration of Nationalism, Imperialism, and Imperialism*, presents a review of the economic

interdependence of the countries of the world, an evaluation of some aspects of the recent history of the United States, a series of proposals for a constructive foreign policy, a review of recent history, and an evaluation of the war debts problem. The price is 15 cents. Copies may be obtained from the author, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.

Teachers interested in the teaching of geography will welcome the following bibliographies: (1) Frederick K. Branom, *A Bibliography of Recent Literature on the Teaching of Geography* (Fifth revised edition, 1927); (2) Ella B. Knight, *A Bibliography of Geographical Literature for Elementary Grades and Junior High School, 1926*. Both are published by the Home Study Department, Clark University, Worcester, Mass. The price is 25 cents, with reductions for quantity orders.

De Forest Stull contributes "A Survey of Textbooks and Related Publications in Geography" in the January number of *The Journal of Educational Method*. The writer discusses the place and use of textbooks, gives lists of textbooks and supplementary readers in geography for elementary and secondary schools with brief annotations, followed by a list of books for teachers, and a list of two studies in the teaching of geography.

The Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., has issued a *Report of the Third Annual Testing Survey*. The part of the report of interest to teachers of the social studies is the publication of the norms for the "Hill Tests on Civic Information and Attitudes," constructed by Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago High School. The norms are based on 33,739 scores from 37 states for the "Information Test," and 50,885 scores from the same number of states for the "Attitudes Test." Copies of the tests and the Report may be obtained from The Public School Publishing Company.

The History Section of the Eighth Annual Ohio State University Educational Conference, to be held April 12th-14th, will present the following program: Reginald S. Kimball, Editor of *Current Events Guide*, "Current Events—the Handmaid of All the Social Studies"; Leon C. Marshall, University of Chicago, "Whither Are the Social Studies Bound?" The program of the geography section is centered about "Maps as Aids to Effective Teaching," with the following speakers: Miss Villa Smith, "Problems in the Use of Maps in Junior High Schools"; Dr. J. Paul Goode, University of Chicago, "Maps—Foundation Stones for Geography."

The Forum of the League of Women Voters and the Association for Peace Education will hold their third annual Educational Conference in the Congress Hotel, Chicago, March 10th. The subject of this year's Conference will be "The Study and the Teaching of International Relations." Professor Pittman Potter, of the University of Wisconsin, will speak at the morning session on "Methods and Motives in the Study of International Relations." The afternoon session will be devoted to a discussion of the press as a factor in the education of the adult in international affairs. Mr. James McDonald, of the Foreign Policy Association of New York, will be the main speaker at this session. The admission fee will be \$1.00 for the day. For further information, write to the office of the Association for Peace Education, 5733 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago.

The February issue of *Plain Talk* contains several articles of interest to the student of contemporary history. Among them are "Too Much Government," by Governor Ritchie of Maryland; "Lincoln and the Preachers," by Lloyd Lewis; "Mayor Miller of St. Louis," by Frederick H. Brennan, and "Science and the Millennium," by Hendrik Willem van Loon.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, Ph.D.

Moorfield Storey's "Nicaragua," in the February *Century*, contains a vigorous plea for a change in our policy towards our Latin-American neighbor. "From every point of view our own interests—moral, political, and economic—are vitally affected by our relation with Nicaragua and our other weak neighbors. To the south of us are twenty republics....an area which is one of the greatest food supply regions of the world, and must soon become a vast market for manufactured goods, with a population of nearly 100,000,000 people—proud, sensitive, and patriotic. As the leading power in this great hemisphere, we are bound to set before them the highest standard of respect for the law and consideration for their rights....The policy which has been pursued the last year by our government violates at once the Constitution of the United States and the fixed principles of international law....It is no excuse to say that the President believes certain things are beneficial. He has no right to exercise a power not given to him or to decide a question of war or peace....American soldiers cannot become Nicaraguan policemen by the warrant of Nicaraguan law....Under pretense of protecting American property we take charge of Nicaragua, keep Diaz....in power, and are to see that the new government elected next year will be chosen under the bayonets of our marines, lent as policemen to a foreign government."

"The Minor Basilicas," by the Rev. John A. Manifa, S.S., D.C.L., in the January *Ecclesiastical Review*, is an attempt to define the basilica, to describe the services appertaining thereto, and a description of the four major basilicas in Rome—San Giovanni in Laterano, San Pietro, San Paoli Fuori, and Santa Maria Maggiore, and the nine minor basilicas: San Lorenzo Fuori, Santa Croce, San Sebastiano, Santa Maria in Trastevere, San Lorenzo in Damaso, Santa Maria in Cosmedin, SS. Apostoli, San Pietro in Vincole, and Santa Maria in Aracoeli.

"For the study of industrial relations, Russia and Italy are today the most interesting European countries, because in both full scale economic experiments are being tried out

in the instance and with the support of the Government....The phase of the Italian Revolution at present engaging public attention is the construction of a corporative state....Much will be found in the scheme strangely like the Soviet organization....Indeed, one might transform the government in Italy into a copy with some important fundamental differences of the Moscow pattern." With this introduction, Captain Wedgwood Bunn, D.S.O., M.P., discusses the three documents which have in recent years appeared to give support to his thesis. These are the Law of April 3, 1926; the Decree of July 1, 1926; and the Labor Charter of April 22, 1927. His discussion and analysis of these form the main body of his article ("Creating a Corporate State in Italy," *The Contemporary Review* for January). The same magazine contains G. E. R. Gedy's sketch of Ion Bratianu.

William Martin, in writing on the value of our civilization to posterity in the February *Forum*, says: "We have given birth to a surface civilization brilliant, but not very solid, which prefers to be startling rather than durable....Most melancholy of all is the thought that we shall take down to destruction not merely our own works, but those of our predecessors."

A most interesting study of a little-known American of ante-bellum days is that of "George N. Sanders," by Merle E. Curtis, in the last issue of *The South Atlantic Quarterly*. This was a man who "was not ashamed to serve God and Mammon at the same time, for they were to him not irreconcilable. He anticipated others in trying to make the world safe for the sort of militant democracy most favorable to a speculation in futures....It was to promote revolutions that he connived with big business. These revolutionary activities were meant to spread our peculiarly American doctrine of liberty in an unwilling and conservative Europe. They were meant at the same time to uproot the existing order and spread the blessings of American civilization and produce. The methods Sanders employed were indeed so crude that they would make certain American patriots who have succeeded him blush. The methods of the patriotic business man of today are more refined. Since the fifties, Young America has grown older and more wise."

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

- Art Through the Ages.* By Helen Gardner. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1926. 506 pp. \$4.00.
Evolution in Modern Art. By Frank Rutter. Lincoln Macveagh, The Dial Press, New York, 1926. 166 pp.
Modern Painting. By Frank Jewett Mather, Jr. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1927. 385 pp. \$6.50.
The Modern Movement in Art. By R. H. Wilemski. F. A. Stokes & Co., New York, 1927. 237 pp. \$5.00.
The Art in Painting. By Albert C. Barnes. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1925. 530 pp. \$6.00.
Fifty Famous Painters. By Henrietta Gerwig. T. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1926. 416 pp. \$3.50.
Twenty-sixth Annual International Exhibition of Paintings: Catalogue. Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh. 75 cents.

The rapid multiplication of books on the history and appreciation of art, and even on aesthetic theory, now and recently on sale in America, constitutes an interesting and significant bit of social history, and points to an aspect of our national development which our school and college courses in history will have to notice.

Miss Gardner's volume is extraordinarily well-done. Prepared especially for the use of classes in art schools, it is admirably suited for the reference shelves of the general history courses which increasingly emphasize the social aspects of the subject. The book undertakes to present an

outline story by periods and countries of all forms of art from the caveman to the twentieth century, with actual illustrations to give some graphic idea of every important movement, and this ambitious aim is actually achieved without making the book a mere syllabus, as, for instance, is the little *Apollo* of Reinach hitherto so widely used as an outline guide in the history of art. Miss Gardner manages to be concrete and interesting, because she adopts the sensible plan of presenting the story in large units and concentrating on significant movements, rigidly limiting the number of artists and works of art selected for treatment, while ruthlessly omitting anecdote and biographical detail, as well as numerous names. Each era is treated as a unit of culture, to be introduced by a brief survey of the historical background, geography, climate, nature of materials, religious beliefs, and social, economic, and political conditions; and then studied through discussion and analysis of a few typical examples of its architecture, sculpture, painting, and crafts; after which a brief summary of the aesthetic significance of the period as a whole is presented. The fine arts of Asia and aboriginal America, as well as those of Europe and the ancient Near East, are included. There are 675 illustrations, including many half-tone plates and four pages in color, all surprisingly clear, effective, and well chosen, and, it might be added, many freshly chosen. Each chapter is followed by a discriminat-

ing bibliography of moderate length, while an appendix includes lists of books on aesthetics, art periodicals, sources for procuring reproductions, and a glossary of technical terms. There is a general index of 16 pages. The style is clear and interesting, characterizations are definite, critical comment is discriminating, the treatment is scholarly. Indeed, it would be hard to find any fault with the volume, except those inherent in a book of this size and scope. Its moderate price should make it readily available for school libraries and as an invaluable companion for museum visits.

The three works on modern art in our list supplement each other and all are valuable in their way, though any one of them will be read more fruitfully by a non-specialist, if he has first been over such a volume as Sheldon Cheney's *Primer of Modern Art* or Jan Gordon's *Modern French Art*. Mr. Rutter gives us a study of painting from 1870 to 1925 that is inspired by hearty admiration for modernist painting, urging the right and duty of the artist to cultivate his own peculiarities, emphasizing overmuch the popular opposition to innovators, and pushing credulity somewhat in his views of the extent to which modernist artists reveal and interpret the spirit of the age, and even incorporate prophecy in their painting. One might criticize him for failing to live up to his title adequately in the matter of tracing "evolution," for his bare mention of such major figures as Manet, Degas, and Renoir, and for some rather queer judgments; at the same time, his views and his summaries of the views of others are suggestive and informing, and at some points he makes a real contribution to the subject; for example, in his chapter of the Cubists, which is probably the most complete chapter available in English on the origins of that movement, though largely a digest of the theories and criticism of others. There are thirty-five good, full-page illustrations and a brief index.

Professor Mather of Princeton represents an entirely different point of view, holding "that this modern age has witnessed a progressive exaggeration of individualism which, apparently enriching, actually has confused and impoverished all the arts," and aligns himself with Irving Babbitt (to whom the book is dedicated) in fighting for "such art as is humanistic, traditional, and socially available." Moderns like Renoir and Degas, whom he admires, he includes in a chapter on "Great Traditionalists." The book is based on the author's Lowell Lectures of 1916, but these have been revised and expanded and two new chapters on modernism added. There is no attempt at a narrative history, the writer being concerned with ideas and ideals, and presupposing on the part of his readers a certain acquaintance with the artists and their work. The numerous full-page half-tones add much to the value of the book.

Mr. Wilenski expounds the theory that the modern movement in the arts represents a "return to the architectural or classical idea," and he holds that the different technique of modern artists, as compared with that of most of the nineteenth-century painters, is due partly to this general aim and partly to a reaction against "the camera's degrading influence on nineteenth-century technique." He sharply attacks the theories of Clive Bell, particularly the idea that we have no right to call anything a work of art to which we do not react emotionally, and holds that we should approach a work of art primarily with the purpose of understanding the artist, and, therefore, with a readiness to say, "I cannot yet read it," rather than "This is unintelligible."

In spite of this theoretical character, the book contains much historical information about modern art, and is an able and stimulating discussion. There are numerous excellent illustrations.

Mr. Albert Barnes has accumulated at Merion, Pa., the most remarkable collection of modernist painting in the country, has supported chairs of art in Columbia and the University of Pennsylvania, and has made the study of art his special work and recreation. His *Art in Painting*, dedicated to John Dewey, is a very able exposition of a method for understanding, appreciating, and judging pictures, by a procedure which wholly subordinates the question of subject-matter, a theory which cannot be adequately summarized even in a much longer review than this. Controversial as such theories are, it can at least be said for that of Mr. Barnes that it is based on long and intimate studies in front of the original paintings, and being handled in terms of concrete discussions of actual pictures, is interesting and suggestive, whether one accepts the theory or not. To the non-specialist, and certainly to the history teacher, the extensive treatment of the history of art which is introduced, with the numerous illustrations especially made, and the full index, will make a strong appeal, though the treatment is by no means elementary. For real substance and freshness it is one of the most important of recent volumes on art.

Entirely different from the other books described in this article is Mrs. Gerwig's biographical volume, which attempts no artistic theory or criticism, but makes a human approach to fifty artists, ranging from Giotto to the nineteenth century. They are necessarily brief and sketchy. The artists chosen include the great figures of the earlier eras, but for recent times the selection is rather conventional. Of all the great names associated with the modernist movements only Manet is included. The story is always discreet and apparently is written for youthful readers.

The catalogue of the Carnegie International Exhibit is always of value to students of art, but also to the interested layman, for it presents, through its lists, its brief articles, and its numerous illustrations, an excellent view of contemporary painting in many countries. The attractive format of last year is repeated. The exhibition is to be shown in Brooklyn and San Francisco, as well as in Pittsburgh.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,

Teachers' College, Columbia University.

World History in the Making. By Albert E. McKinley, Arthur C. Howland, and Matthew L. Dann. American Book Company, New York, 1927. x, 742 pp.

World History Today. By Albert E. McKinley, Arthur C. Howland, and Matthew L. Dann. American Book Company, New York, 1927. xxxviii, 821 pp.

In the past five or six years a number of efforts have been made to produce a history text suitable for use in a one- or two-year high school course in World History. A recent contribution to this field has been written by Professors McKinley and Howland of the University of Pennsylvania in collaboration with Mr. Dann of the Richmond Hill High School of New York City, thus combining the elements of scholarliness with practical schoolroom technique. To make the above desirable adjustment, to make such a book informing, colorful, and sufficiently full of detail to be vivid, and at the same time to eliminate those parts of our past that do not serve to elucidate the present, have proved a supreme challenge to writers of World History texts, and have stimulated the interest of history teachers in each new book.

These authors have met these demands with courage and originality. They have selected, eliminated, and organized their material with a view to presenting history in large units, and of analyzing the units into related parts. In large measure, the arrangement lends itself to clear conceptions and to thoughtful interpretations of historical

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concepts. The first volume is divided into four large divisions, entitled, respectively, "Early People Lay the Foundation of Civilization," "Ancient Culture Reaches Its Height Under the Greeks and Romans," "The Middle Ages: Civilization Declines and Revives," and "The Beginnings of Modern History." The divisions of the second volume, including the first review section, are five in number, and cover the revolutions of the eighteenth century; the three great developments of modern times—democracy, nationalism, and economic rivalry; the spread of European civilization; and, finally, the World War. Each chapter heading constitutes a subdivision of a larger unit, and has in its turn several smaller sections, with page captions, in each case indicating the substance. In most instances, the wording of these topical headings is illuminating and thought-provoking.

The avowed plan of the book, "to explain how our modern world came to be what it is," has done much to guide the authors in a wise elimination of many topics traditionally included in works of this kind, rendering the treatment, especially of the first volume, rather social and economic than purely political. Several of the chapters are unusually lively and entertaining in their treatment. The one on Greek Life; those dealing with Church history, with feudalism, and with the evolution of the English government; and, in the second volume, the entire section entitled "Achievements in the Nineteenth Century," deserve especial praise.

The books have many attractions, not the least of which are the numerous illustrations, which arrest the attention the moment one turns the pages. The pictures are interesting, well chosen, and pertinent, adding much to one's understanding of the particular phase of the story. In many instances, too, the accompanying legend explains and interprets the picture, a most necessary feature, and one too often neglected in history texts. Unfortunately, the maps do not measure up to the level of the pictures.

The two volumes are so arranged as to be used either separately or successively; either in a one- or two-year course. The first seven chapters in volume two cover the ground of the first book in such a way as to serve either for a review, if desired, or as a rapid introduction when the course must be completed in a short time. However, to cover so vast a period as from the days of Paleolithic man to those of Louis XVI in one hundred and forty pages necessarily reduces the substance to such density that few immature minds can hope to absorb much that is useful in its study, and the reviewer always questions the value of such an attempt.

The title "World History" seems inappropriate to a work that does not deal with the civilizations east of the Indus River before the nineteenth century. Just why this term is so generally employed for courses and books that frankly cover only the story of western civilization is one of the unsolved mysteries, whose practice is likely to bring deserved criticism from our friends of the ancient Oriental cultures. It is to be regretted that this work, which treats with striking impartiality the causes and outcomes of the World War, should be found with a title so misleading.

The two volumes are unusually adapted to the purpose for which they are designed, that of classroom use. The excellent scholarship, the admirable organization, the illuminating illustrations, the devices and aids in the form of questions inserted throughout the reading-matter, the problems and suggested readings at the end of each chapter, all of these make up an extraordinarily reliable and suggestive text.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School, Towson.

George Washington, 1762-1777, The Rebel and the Patriot.

By Rupert Hughes. William Morrow & Company, New York, 1927. Volume II. 694 pp.

Rupert Hughes, in the second volume of his biography, progresses from 1762 to 1777 in a work, which it is now announced, will fill four volumes. In a vague manner from Mr. Hughes's two completed volumes come an almost prigg-

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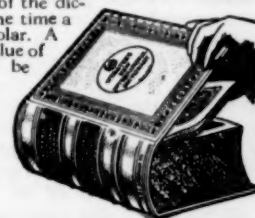
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gish contempt for other treatments of Washington and a calm assurance that here is a biographer who has bared the case of the lamellated patriot. Unfortunately, as each layer is pared off, the author stops to rebake the original imposer, so that instead of creating a pervasive contact with Washington, the work partakes of the character of a debate between Mr. Hughes and the past century's composite appraisal of Washington. The author also pauses to quarrel with those, like McMaster, who believe that Washington's voluminous writings do not contain the betrayals of character, essential to a proper understanding, and therefore have made no effort to pierce the hard, impenetrable exterior. Mr. Hughes denies a paucity of materials, and contends that the uncounted Washington documents have many glistening passages, outwardly reflective of the inward man. Incidentally, Mr. Hughes offers the strange comment that no man has ever been through all of the original writings of Washington. As a bizarre performance, some biographer might actually examine the whole mass.

Contrasted with the first volume, the second shows a decreasing ability of the author to blend the central figure with his environment. In the first volume—an excellent work—Washington was kneaded into his milieu. Aside from failure in the present volume to fuse the man and the background, the author in his discursive handling of the period occasionally displays an inability to assimilate his materials. Perhaps some of the lack of digestion may be attributed primarily to the staff of research assistants mentioned on the jacket. Seemingly, the biographer possesses an insufficient knowledge of the period to detect errors of incompetent assistants. Unwarranted slurs about Washington's interest in western lands and about Lord Dunmore's prosecution of an Indian war reveal a regrettable ignorance of the geographical extent of Quebec under the Quebec Act. More deplorable is the factual error in regard to the repeal of the Townshend legislation by a citation of Professor A. M. Schlesinger's authoritative monograph, *The Colonial Merchants and the Revolution*. Anyone who turns to page 236 in Schlesinger's book can only explain the incorrect derivation from it in the biography as a careless perusal by a person unfamiliar with the events. The above exemplify, not unfairly, the loose, sloppy tone which permeates the volume; hardly the scientific historiography for which Mr. Hughes professes an indefeasible attachment. Without here attempting to settle the moot point as to whether history is a science, or merely a study to which scientific methods may be applied, it might be pertinent to observe that fully as important as the method is the spirit behind its use. Scientists generally recognize the futility of mere procedure without the spirit of calm detachment, and the willingness unhesitatingly to discard prejudice and preconceptions. Above all, the spirit of genuine science labors to attain the truth as an end in itself, indifferent to popular opinion, heedless of opportunities to preach, neglectful of exciting the credulity of the naïve. Granted, pseudo-scientists do not follow these precepts, and neither do pseudo-historians. As Mr. Hughes records, George III a large part of his life was as crazy as James Otis; Benjamin Franklin was called most uncomplimentary names by the bigwigs of London; and Quakers were whipped through the streets of Boston during early colonial days, but the reasons for their inclusion in a biography of Washington, except to startle and to beguile, is a matter for wonderment. Their mention, it would seem, savors not of the spirit of a cool, dispassionate scientist. Possibly, the ability "deftly" to handle dramatic incidents, boasted for Mr. Hughes by the blurb, finds an outlet in derogations of this nature.

The ubiquitous deftness of the author often mars the quality of his work. Many of the apocryphal Washington tales find a place along with proof or belief of their falseness. Evidently, they played no part in the life of the original man, but are brightly colored threads in the fabricated notion of Washington, and as such deserve a place

in a biography of him. And, anyway, they are good stories. Despite the scorn which Mr. Hughes pours upon preceding biographers, he finds it convenient at times to quote and to incorporate their unauthenticated material into the body of his text. Even the maligned Parson Weems in one place furnishes uncriticized material.

Rarely do literary artists create a many-sided figure who may be spun on his heels and viewed from different angles. The biographer has an even more difficult task of breathing life into his subject, since the legendary after-math blurs, distorts, and falsifies what was once a man, created by a power beyond that of any artist. No figure of a man stalks through the conglomerated mass of fact and fancy compressed into Mr. Hughes's volume. In spirit, it is deft and provocative; in body, it is didactic and unreliable—another contribution to the supercilious "wrangle" school of history.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR.

Columbia University.

The Constitution in the Early French Revolution. By G. G. Andrews. F. S. Crofts and Co., New York, 1927. vi, 71 pp.

Parliamentary Reform in England, 1830-1832. By G. G. Andrews. F. S. Crofts and Co., New York, 1927. 59 pp.

These two little booklets are the introductory volumes of a series of source problems entitled *Landmarks in History*, under the general editorship of Bernadotte Schmitt. Their purpose "is to provide a number of problems of moderate length...short enough for several of them to be used during a year's course." The series will cover the entire field of modern European History, the materials will be varied, and the range of topics wide. "In many cases source material in English translation will be made available for the first time." It may be remarked incidentally that the teacher is likely to benefit hardly less than the student by this project. Many college libraries are altogether too inadequate to furnish the materials of which excerpts are given here.

The two problems which usher in the project are well chosen. They may be taken as representative and altogether important from the point of view of both content and methodology. In both, a short historical introduction is given to orient the student. Then follows data on the sources used. The main part of the book, however, is devoted exclusively to selections from diaries and memoirs, official records, and newspapers. A familiar contact with a given period is gained and a much more vivid impression is bound to overtake the student. In addition, men who were but names now become personalities in the light of these keyhole glimpses into their diaries. It is not unlikely that a larger number of students will be interested to read further. The booklets conclude with a suggested list of exercises which require a synthetic and interpretative reaction to the scattered selections, and a longer list of specific questions of a formal sort. Professor Andrews is to be congratulated for what he has done here.

The success of this venture, it seems, will depend largely on what projects are included in the series. The beginning is excellent and demands consideration. Some queries may arise as to the best method of usage, and the editor may find it worth while in some future problem to give more fully his own experience. Certainly, there is nothing prohibitive, in price or form, of success for this series, and we wish it well.

C. F. MULLETT.

University of Missouri.

The United States and Mexico. By J. Fred Rippy. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1926. xi, 401 pp. Maps.

This is a volume for those who would better understand our past and present relations with our Mexican neighbor. As a general survey of the diplomatic relations of the two States, it is the first to appear in any language. The author has aimed "to set forth in simple narrative designed to appeal to the public, as well as to students of college and university rank, the differences which have arisen be-

tween the two countries, the factors which have produced them, and the spirit in which they have been met" (p. vii). The result is a careful, scholarly, authentic narrative, some parts of which constitute a real contribution to the field of American diplomatic relations.

Like many of the Hispanic-American States, Mexico's political history has been dominated by personalities—adventurers, politicians, and statesmen. Class friction and religious intolerance have further complicated her history. At times weak, fickle, and often treacherous, she has lived as neighbor to a vigorous and aggressive power, some of whose citizens have cared little for Mexican boundaries and less for Mexican natives. Nor have they been either willing or desirous to learn more of this race to the south. Even today the mid-nineteenth century spirit of Manifest Destiny still rankles in the breasts of many in the United States.

The story of Mexico has been that of a struggle, at times valiant, with manifold problems, which it has been necessary to overcome in order to create a stable, efficient government, and to develop a unified people. On occasion she has succeeded in this contest, but in most instances she has sadly failed. Frequently this has been due to outside influence. And it is just here that the United States is partly responsible for the "Mexican Problem."

As Professor Rippey shows, the United States has not always been consistent in its Mexican relations. The first feelings were those of sympathy for a Spanish colony struggling to free herself from a misguided parent. From 1825, when the first United States minister arrived in Mexico, to 1846, the irresistible western migration brought continual border friction. The result was the Mexican War. Afterwards boundary disputes and continued internal disorders in Mexico gave rise to moves in the American congress for annexation of Mexican territory, or for the establishment of a Mexican protectorate. In the midst of this feeling "conscience money" was paid Mexico under the Gadsden treaty in 1853. During the American Civil War a comparative lull occurred in Mexican relations, though that State was disturbed by Napoleon III. Gradually a new era dawned under Diaz and relations with the United States were confined principally to border irritation and claims, together with a peaceful economic penetration by American capital. At the end of the Diaz régime in 1910 political revolutions brought new and sterner relations with the northern republic, and such expressions as "watchful waiting" and "Mexico on the verge" were coined. The constitution of 1917 marked another climax which led to further complications in foreign relations.

These aspects and many more Professor Rippey has covered in minute detail. He has produced an excellent picture, though he has placed less stress on those subjects thoroughly treated by his predecessors. A bibliography (pp. 365-73), citing much primary material, indicates the tremendous amount of work he has done to accomplish his task. The index (pp. 375-81) is extremely useful. Other maps than the two reproduced here might have been found valuable by the student. While the reviewer cannot agree with all of the author's interpretations, he feels that the volume is worthy to rank foremost among those dealing with the many special phases of American diplomacy.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

From Bismarck to the World War. By Erich Brandenburg. Translated by Annie E. Adams. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1927. 542 pp.

In this very readable volume Professor Brandenburg has made a notable contribution to the voluminous literature of the entangled pre-war diplomacy. With abundant references to the numerous source materials recently made available, he has given a lucid, straightforward, and remarkably impartial account of the diplomatic relations between the leading powers of the world throughout the whole critical period from 1870 to 1914. He paints a vivid picture of the fear, distrust, deception, and failings which motivated the European statesmen in their fateful actions. He de-

picts clearly how they frequently were groping in the dark, hopelessly ransacking their brains for possible solutions to hypothetical situations. How often they came to erroneous conclusions! Public opinion played an active part in bringing on the catastrophe. Hate rankled in the breasts of patriots in every country—often for very obscure reasons. Sometimes diplomats and press egged on the public to demonstrations of ill-will toward rival lands. Sometimes the voice of the people forced diplomats to take stands against their own better opinion. It was a tragic Comedy of Errors that led to the holocaust.

Though the subtitle of the book reads, "A History of German Foreign Policy, 1870 to 1914," such a work would perforce have to be a history of the foreign policies of all

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the major powers during the period indicated. In fulfillment of this task Professor Brandenburg has succeeded in drawing a skillful panorama of the chief episodes in international relations since the formation of the German Empire.

Their quarrels in Africa, declares the author, made Germany and England distrustful of one another. Neither country was willing to enter into binding agreements with the other. England did not care to join the Triple Alliance. Germany was not anxious to back up England in an attack on Russia, for in that case Britannia would be risking only a few battleships, whereas Germany would have to fight for her existence on two fronts. Germany was not ready to pull England's chestnuts out of the fire. The Russians, for reasons of their own, did their best to increase the suspicion between the two powers, and, under the guidance of the distrustful and halting Baron Holstein, the Germany Foreign Office adopted a policy which was really very stupid, to say the least. The impulsiveness of the Kaiser only served to make matters worse. The difficulty of choosing between England and Russia, and the tempting possibility of becoming the *arbiter mundi*, proved fatal for Germany. Isolation, or encirclement, perhaps, was the unexpected outcome.

Holstein always doubted Salisbury's sincerity and underestimated England's strength; whereas, the latter held aloof from the Triple Alliance in the belief that the polyglot empire would fall to pieces upon the death of the aged Francis Joseph. The German policy of constantly harping upon adequate "compensation" as the price for support, and the general dilatoriness of the "Berlin people" finally disgusted even Joseph Chamberlain, who had honestly made every effort to consummate some form of alliance between the greatest naval and the greatest military powers of Europe. At about this time, too, Germany began to feel shaky on its pedestal as world arbiter, and, instead, assumed a position of extreme caution. The leading Central European power thus acted "like some peddling tradesman who, before concluding arrangements for the transfer of his business to a large firm, thinks it his duty to ask for a small sum in advance, a precaution which the worldwide firm of Great Britain regarded as an insult, and as a sign that their prospective partner was not their equal."

Failing in an attempt to get a defensive alliance with Russia in 1904, when the Czar insisted that France would have to be notified before the treaty could be signed, and chagrined and astounded by the news of the Anglo-French Entente in the same year, Germany adopted a Moroccan policy dictated by "greed, perplexity, and loss of prestige." In this instance, Germany was supported only by Austria, and by 1907 the impossible had been accomplished. England, France, and Russia were united in a Triple Entente.

In 1906 Baron Holstein, the prime mover in the dog-in-the-manger policy, and the cause of all the trouble, resigned. But by this time there were new sources of friction with England. These were trade and naval rivalry. While one futile attempt after another to end this rivalry was being made in Western Europe, Russia was active in the East. The Czar's government gradually drew the Balkan States closer to itself by promising them generous shares in the division of Austria-Hungary, which would naturally follow, it was confidently expected, upon the Emperor's death. Russia tried hard to provoke Austria to take some rash and foolish step in order to precipitate a war, and after the Balkan War of 1912 it was only the restraining influence of Sir Edward Grey which kept France and her ally from hastening into hostilities. However, the appearance of the Lorrainer, Raymond Poincaré, whose every action was inspired by the thought of *revanche*, at the head of French foreign affairs, and the appointment of Iswolski, who ever since his diplomatic defeat in the Bosnian crisis of 1908 had been thirsting for revenge, to be the Russian ambassador at Paris, made the war inevitable.

With the Dual Monarchy as its only loyal ally, for no one was deluded by Italy's position, Germany was now as weak as Austria. The centre of gravity of the Alliance lay in Vienna, not in Berlin. England accordingly did not wish the Entente "this valuable tool for preventing Ger-

many from becoming too powerful to be shattered." Under such circumstances, says Brandenburg, it would have been sheer folly for Germany to precipitate a war. Diplomatically and economically, she was unprepared for war. Indeed, Russia's mobilization in 1914 was due largely to a fear on the part of the war party that Austria, under German pressure, would ease up on her Serbian demands, and thus postpone the war once again to a later date. Germany, however, is to be blamed for giving Austria a *carte blanche* in the first instance.

In general get-up the book is eminently satisfactory. It should occupy a prominent position on the shelf of every student and thinking person interested in diplomacy, in the Great War, and in contemporary history.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

New Governments of Eastern Europe. By Malbone W. Graham, Jr. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1927. 826 pp.

Those who are interested in European politics are probably familiar with Professor Graham's excellent book on the governments of Central Europe. In the preface to this earlier volume he suggested that similar studies might be made of the governments which had their birth in the collapse of the old Russian and Ottoman Empires. His "New Governments of Eastern Europe" fulfills this promise as regards the heirs of the Empire of All the Russias, and, we hope, he will complete the series with a third volume.

After a sketch of the Imperial Government of the Tsars and the events of the Russian Revolution, the author discusses the Soviet Union, Finland, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland. The introductory sketch lays much emphasis upon the Council, the Duma, and the prerogatives of the Tsar, all are institutions which vanished completely with the revolution. The author probably did not care to go into the matter of administration and local government, but if the purpose of his introductory chapters was to show the constitutional evolution, he might well have laid more emphasis upon the collegial system of departmental executives and the old system of local government, which included the principle of indirect representation later used for the system of soviets. Though the theory of Bolshevism is an innovation, the systems of local government and administration have roots in the past. The sections on the government of the Union are, on the whole, comprehensive and well written. The author does well to lay emphasis upon the federal nature of the Union, with its component national states.

As in his former book, the author is not satisfied with mere descriptions of the constitutions, but occupies most of his space with discussion of the historical background and present political questions which are moulding the governments into new forms. For this reason his book is most valuable for its treatment of the conditions surrounding the growth of institutions, rather than the analysis of the institutions themselves. It is a study of the "processes of revolution and reorganization." Hence, the book serves also as a political and diplomatic history of these states since the war.

This discussion of the conditions under which the new Baltic governments were born is well worth while, since they caused a thoroughly progressive and yet sane trend of development. War and revolution wiped the slate clean and Bolshevism forced the Baltic peoples to prompt action in establishing their governments and in coping with the much-needed social and agrarian reforms. Yet, it also caused them to choose carefully and wisely in the steps they took, rejecting untried formulæ in favor of tested institutions and policies. Yet the reaction to Tsarism prevented too much conservatism. France and Switzerland furnished the chief models for the constitutional assemblies, and the parliaments were established with weak and deferential executives. Since then, however, such a democratic course has been repudiated, except in Esthonia, and the trend is now toward a reconcentration of authority, indicated either by constitutional proposals or actual grants of powers for a limited period of time.

The discussion of social and agrarian questions is especially good from the political side. The presence of Bolshevism, the fact that the oppressed were usually members of the revived nationality, and the desire to develop the country economically all hastened social adjustment. The author says that "the policy actually chosen represents one of the most outstanding examples of rational social engineering in the history of modern Europe" (p. 540).

This book, like Professor Graham's earlier one, has an appendix containing over a hundred important documents, mostly translated from foreign languages and taken from sources unavailable to the average reader. This, and his use of the material in the Hoover War Library, makes the book especially valuable for reference. But it is to be regretted that there are not more footnotes which might be of help to students working in the average university library. The question of minority populations, for instance, is an extremely important one in all of these countries, and yet the footnotes are not such as can be used by the ordinary student in following up the subject. As in his former book, Professor Graham has made use of "Time Charts" to show graphically the fluctuations in the strength of the political parties in each country.

For the constitutional development of these countries and their post-war history, for the conditions which have determined and in the future will determine the policies and course of development of the Baltic States, the book is unusually valuable.

WARNER MOSS.

Williams College.

Political Myths and Economic Realities. By Francis Delaisi. Noel Douglas, London, 1927. 409 pp.

Perhaps the greatest failure in most secondary teaching of modern European history is a lack of integration and co-ordination. The pupil—and sometimes the teacher—is dragged through a mass of dates, incidents, places, all without any apparent interrelation to each other, until he finishes his history with a deep sigh of bewildered relief, and a conviction that all "foreigners" are crazy creatures, whose lives and conduct bear no real similarity or relation to those of the ordinary American.

It is fortunate that there are steadily appearing more and more books which will help the teacher in preventing such a situation. Such volumes, for example, as Buell's *International Relations*, Fraser's *Foreign Trade and World Politics*, and the present one will very greatly aid in this task. It is not that they should be put directly into the hands of the student. But they will give the teacher a background upon which he can make a better type of presentation in class work.

This is the chief merit of *Political Myths and Economic Realities*. As far as strictly factual history goes, it has a number of ludicrous errors; for instance, page 265 dates the beginning of the Spanish-American War in 1894. But these matters of detail are almost always of so obvious a nature that any well-informed teacher can detect them. They are without doubt the weak side of the book, but it has another aspect, too.

Its positive merit is its broad sweep of unifying interpretation for modern history. No doubt, the Delaisian interpretation of the last century will be frowned upon by one hundred percenters in all countries; but whether the thoughtful student agrees with it or not, he must admit that it is an interpretation. The author feels that the unifying thread in all the varied episodes of nationalism, imperialism, industrial conflict, and economic progress is an inevitable conflict between two concepts: a political world of "sovereign" states and an economic world of "interdependence." This major premise is really unsailable. And on it Delaisi has strung a thousand and one facts of modern history, showing with very keen reasoning that usually the relation between the most diverse things in the most remote countries is intimate and important.

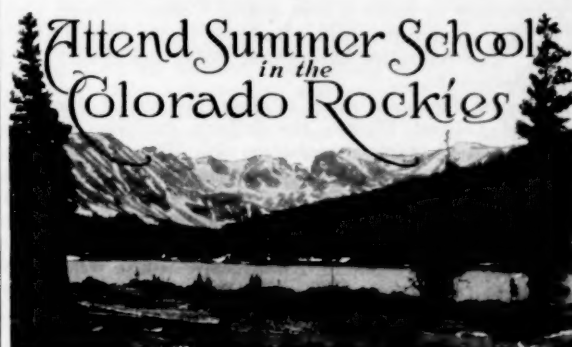
Until there is harmony between the thoughts that men

think, and the acts which they do, world peace is hardly possible. One concept leads straight to international anarchy; the other to international co-operation. The author feels that the League of Nations, the International Labor Office, and the International Chamber of Commerce are the three agencies through which the saving synthesis will take place. His book was first written just before the Locarno Conference, and a final footnote tells us that he is convinced the decisions of that body were fundamentally based on the same ideas as those his book sets forth.

For the most part, the printer has done his work well. Unhappily, the book lacks an index. With all its shortcomings, however, it has abundant positive merit. It is truly worth the attention of a thoughtful student of modern times.

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The Intimate Papers of Colonel House. By Charles Seymour. Two volumes. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1926. Volume I (Behind the Political Curtain, 1912-1915), xxi, 471 pp.; Volume II (From Neutrality to War, 1915-1917), viii, 508 pp.

In the year 1922 Colonel House gave to Yale University his entire collection of political papers. Permission was given to Professor Seymour to select and publish the most significant of these, and he tells us in his note of acknowledgment that whatever deletions appear "have been dictated by the exigencies of space or by a regard for the feelings of persons still alive," and that in no case do these omissions alter the historical meaning of the papers. The omissions, however, appear to be so many that, in the opinion of the reviewer, the work should have been entitled, "Extracts From the Intimate Papers of Colonel House."

Next to writing a biography, the task of editing another man's memoirs is a most difficult one. In view of this fact, Professor Seymour has produced a creditable piece of work, even though the reviewer feels that there is a tendency to make a hero out of Colonel House, which is, of course, not the prime business of an impartial historian. The narrative throughout holds the reader; it is not a drowsy book.

Professor Seymour gives a clear picture of the early years of Colonel House; the latter's exploits in Texas politics, and his early association with Wilson and Bryan. From the "Papers" it is quite clear that Wilson and Bryan were not very friendly at the outset. Credit is given to Bryan for securing the Democratic nomination for the Presidency for Mr. Wilson. House is pictured as helping Wilson choose his cabinet. Apparently, House was willing to let Bryan have one of the portfolios. But House always stands in the background, never seeking political office or honors.

That House was the prime mover in the Federal Reserve Board System does not appear altogether clear. This is his claim. But in a series of articles published during the last spring in the New York *Evening Post*, Carter Glass, the then Chairman of the Senate Committee on Banking, claims that the Federal Reserve Board System was the creation of his committee and not of Mr. House. Mr. House in the "Papers" gives all the credit for the Federal Reserve Board to Mr. Wilson, and says that Mr. Glass at one time admitted that he knew nothing about banking. If Mr. House's statement is true, it may well be asked how Mr. Glass could have become and remained Chairman of this committee for any length of time. The reviewer feels that the House narrative is unnecessarily prejudiced here.

Colonel House played another very important rôle when he went to Europe in 1914, just before the World War, and tried to sound the German and British Governments on their international policies. That he learned much of great value to our State Department cannot be doubted. He conversed in friendly but diplomatic fashion with the Kaiser, Von Jagow, Bethmann-Hollweg, Grey, Lloyd-George, Balfour, Lord Loreburn, Lord Kitchener, Poincaré, and Delcassé, and communicated the results of his conversations to President Wilson.

Between 1914 and 1917, Colonel House and the President earnestly sought to re-establish peace between the Allies and Central Powers. Failing in this, after several visits to the belligerent powers, Colonel House pressed President Wilson to declare the diplomatic aims of the United States. This was done just before the Central Powers threw down the gauntlet to the United States by declaring unrestricted submarine warfare in the Atlantic and Mediterranean areas. House and Wilson were not in any sense too hasty. Germany threw off her mask and the United States entered the World War on the side of the Allied Powers.

In the opinion of the reviewer, Colonel House served his country with the greatest distinction between 1914-1917. All Americans owe him a great tribute.

In conclusion, it may be said that despite certain shortcomings, the book is highly valuable to students and scholars of American politics and international affairs.

ROY CLARK HANAWAY.

Wagner College.

Book Notes

Randolph G. Adams' *The Gateway to American History* (Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1927. xv, 176 pp.) promises to be an unique contribution to the stimulation of interest in the study and reading of history. It consists of thirty-six short chapters and seventy-five reproductions of old pictures and maps found in books, published during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, which are among the rare Americana contained in the Clements Library of the University of Michigan. The author of the book is the Custodian of that Collection.

The descriptive narrative is written in simple language and should delight both the child and the adult. Chapter I begins: "'And what is the use of a book without pictures or conversations?' inquired Alice. There is no answer. There are times when I doubt whether there is any really good answer to that question. No wonder Alice plunged down the rabbit hole into the Wonderland through which you have all followed her....No fairy tales, no novels are quite so thrilling as the stories of what actually happened when America was discovered and settled. Now I have read a great many books of American history which have had neither pictures nor conversations. Often, upon finishing one of them, I have felt like jumping down a rabbit hole, too. That is why it has seemed to me that it would be a good idea to open a new gateway to American history and invite people who like pictures to pass in" (pp. 3-4).

The incidents illustrated in the pictures deal "with only a few of the most important events connected with the finding of America and its exploration by the people of European countries—Spain, England, France, and the Netherlands." The narrative story gives a continuous picture, albeit a brief one, of the European background and the exploration and settlement of America.

There is no index for the volume, and some might wish that a list of the books used, together with descriptive bibliographical data, had been added. However, under each illustration an abbreviated notation of its origin is given. On the whole, this volume is a welcome one and should be widely read by both young and old.—A. CURTIS WILGUS.

In these days, when so much is being said about international good-will and world peace, it is particularly gratifying to be able to point to those who by word and deed have been instrumental in breaking down the barriers of ignorance and hate that all too frequently exist between the nationals of one State and those of another, and who thereby help to create an atmosphere of understanding and friendship. Such was Daniel Crosby Greene, whose career has been sketched by his son, Professor Evarts B. Greene, in a recently published volume entitled, *A New Englander in Japan. Daniel Crosby Greene* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1927. x, 374 pp.).

Born at Roxbury, Massachusetts, in 1843, and reared in an atmosphere strongly charged with Puritan tradition, David Crosby Greene first turned to teaching and then fitted himself to be a missionary. In 1869 he was designated by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions as their first missionary to Japan. Here he spent the rest of his life. During his forty-four years of service there he witnessed the transition of Japan from a feudal to a modern state. Even more important, he established personal contacts with all classes of Japanese society. A discriminating but sympathetic critic of all things Japanese, he endeared himself to the Japanese people. In his native land he was their interpreter and defender, and in him his countrymen recognized an authority on "things Japanese." This, in a word, is the framework of Professor Greene's story. And those who would catch something of the spirit of New England Puritanism in the decade preceding the American Civil War, and would know

more of the story of the transformation of Japanese society, would do well to read this work.

Needless to say, in writing this biography of his father, Professor Greene has chosen merely to present facts and events, rather than to pass judgment on them.

Under the title of *The Catastrophe* (Appleton, New York, 1927, \$3.00), Alexander Kerensky has published his story of the Russian revolution between March and November, 1917. As he himself admits, it is not an objective account; indeed, it is highly subjective, but it does succeed in giving some impression of the Russian situation and the amazing confusion of interests out of which the Bolshevik dictatorship evolved. The reader need not expect a clear unfolding of events, for there was none. In this somewhat rhetorical account, he will find a series of glimpses of the Duma relapsing from united fervor to "their former week-day state of mind," but he must construct from elsewhere the fashion in which a despised minority with a simple program grew to power on the failures and divisions of the majority.—J. B. B.

In his two-volume work entitled, *The Economics of Instalment Selling, A Study in Consumers' Credit* (Harper and Brothers, New York and London, 1927. Vol. I, xii, 357 pp. Vol. II, 623 pp.), Professor E. R. A. Seligman has appraised with remarkable fullness and clarity an aspect of what may well be termed the second or twentieth-century industrial revolution. In volume one he first traces the historical background of instalment credit and summarizes the extent to which such credit is employed today. In this connection he shows pretty conclusively that the total volume of all instalment sales of consumption goods is less than is generally supposed. The second half of the first volume, labeled analytical, is devoted to an attempt to show the real significance of instalment selling in modern economic life. This naturally includes an examination into the nature and characteristics of instalment credit and its

effects on the consumer. While admitting that instalment selling, like every new institution, has its weaknesses, Professor Seligman is of the opinion that it has come to stay and that it will be refined and perfected.

Volume two contains seven appendices, each of which deals with some aspect of instalment selling. These appendices were for the most part prepared by Professor Seligman's younger colleagues and are admirable studies in themselves.

The literature depicting America's part in the World War continues to increase. One of the more worth-while volumes which has been added to this growing literature in recent months is Edward N. Hurley's *The Bridge to France* (J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia and London, 1927. xiii, 338 pp.). Mr. Hurley as war-time Chairman of the United States Shipping Board was in a strategic position to know the details and vital facts about this Board and the Emergency Fleet Corporation. In this volume he gives the reader some notion of the gigantic problems which the Shipping Board faced. These included the designing and building of various types of vessels, the construction of shipyards, recruiting, housing and transporting shipyard workers, the making of seamen, protecting ships from submarines, and avoiding labor troubles. The volume also gives us interesting glimpses of important war-time personages, as well as some notion of how the political and diplomatic wires were pulled. The first chapter, "Launching Woodrow Wilson," is among the most informing and entertaining in the entire book. The volume contains numerous illustrations in the form of photographs, war posters, facsimiles of letters and telegrams and other documents. Incidentally, the publishers have done a good job.

In his preface to *Lord Brougham and the Whig Party* (The University Press, Manchester, Longmans, Green & Co., 1927, 322 pp., \$7.00), Arthur Aspinall disclaims all



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intention of writing a complete biography of the famous Whig statesman. His work, the elaboration of a doctoral thesis, is a painstaking, thoroughly scholarly, and very well-written narrative of Brougham's political career. The handsome binding, the reproduction of many cartoons of the period, and the generally attractive appearance of the book should not lead the general reader to expect a popular biography in the modern style. The political historian who is a specialist in the field will find constant use of manuscript material, both in the text and in appendix C. To the social historian, chapter twelve, which deals with Brougham's economic thought and his work as a social reformer will prove most stimulating. Throughout the book the reader senses the underlying tragedy of the fact that the man who was one of the most brilliant of nineteenth-century English statesmen, in many respects a genius, the untiring advocate of much ameliorative social legislation, and a most attractive figure in private life, should yet be deficient in political stability and public morality.—J. G. G.

When George Macaulay Trevelyan was elected Regius Professor of Modern History at Cambridge, in succession to the late Professor Bury, many of us were glad. As the author of a series of volumes, treating various aspects of English History and European History in a style at once brilliant and intimate, he has deserved our gratitude. And recently as the interpreter of the whole of English History, he has shown his right to our most profound admiration. His inaugural lecture, *The Present Position of History* (Longmans, 1927. 29 pp. 75 cents), presents, we may suppose, his creed. While radiating none of the Olympian quality of Lord Acton's famous inaugural, there is a personal note no less stimulating for the encouragement of young students. Professor Trevelyan comments pleasingly on the development of the Cambridge History School, the personalities connected with its rise, and the new interests in historical study. He acknowledges the relationship and the mutual indebtedness of History and the allied fields of Education, Literature, and the Social Sciences. As was inevitable, Professor Trevelyan again demonstrates as well as preaches that History is an art. Some passages of his conclusion can hardly be improved upon in awakening students to their high calling. "The appeal of History to us all is in the last analysis poetic. But the poetry of History does not consist of imagination roaming at large, but of imagination pursuing the fact and fastening upon it....Unlike most forms of imaginative life, it cannot be satisfied save by facts." A master has said his *credo*. It was worth the saying.—C. F. MULLETT.

Stephen Pierce Duggan's *A Student's Textbook in the History of Education* (D. Appleton and Company, Revised Edition, 1927. ix, 414 pp.) is merely a slightly enlarged edition of the author's *A Student's Textbook in the History of Education*, which appeared in 1916. The principal changes occur in the last two chapters. These chapters have been rewritten so as to include the more recent developments in educational theory and the changes in European education induced by the Great War and its aftermath. The final chapter, which is quite the longest in the book, exhibits a thorough and sympathetic knowledge of contemporary education in Europe. Those teachers who have found Professor Duggan's very condensed treatment of the history of education serviceable for their needs in the past will welcome it in the new and larger edition.

The *Biography Section* of the *Standard Catalog* has been issued in a revised and enlarged edition, containing about 1150 titles of biographies, biographical dictionaries, and books about biography, compiled by Minnie Earl Sears. In addition to full bibliographical detail, including prices, there are helpful annotations, descriptive and to a slight extent critical, and a full analytical index is included. Intended especially for small and medium-sized libraries, this list is admirably convenient and useful for the teacher of history (as well as of other subjects), both in the grades and the high school. The present vogue of biography in

the reading world gives the list an especial timeliness (H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1927. 128 pp., 7x10 inches. \$2.00).

Students of American history will ever be indebted to the late Professor William A. Dunning and to those who worked in his seminars for the contribution they made to the story of Civil War reconstruction. But their work was largely on the political side, and it has remained for another generation of scholars to delve into other neglected aspects of the period. One of these is Alruthus Ambush Taylor, whose volume entitled *The Negro in the Reconstruction of Virginia* (The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Washington, 1926. iv, 300 pp.) is a valuable addition to the literature dealing with the social and economic history of the United States. Mr. Taylor, employing the best that is known in historical method, has studied the negro as a participant in the re-making of Virginia, and, as a consequence, we have a very different picture from the one that has found general acceptance in the past. Negro life is viewed from all angles, as well as the various forces and agencies to which the negro was subjected. The volume forms an admirable companion to the author's earlier study on *The Negro in South Carolina During the Reconstruction*, and like it was made possible by a research grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial.

Books on History and Government published in the United States from Dec. 31, 1927, to Jan. 28, 1928

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

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- Beard, Mary R. A short history of the American labor movement. N. Y.: Macmillan. 212 pp. 80 cents.
Bennett, Clarence E. Advance and retreat to Saratoga in the American Revolution; American offensive. Schenectady, N. Y.: Robson & Adee. 80 pp. 60 cents.
Bennett, Clarence E. Advance and retreat to Saratoga; Burgoyne's Campaign. Schenectady, N. Y.: Robson & Adee. 58 pp. 60 cents.
Comstock, Sarah. Roads to the Revolution [Revolutionary landmarks near Boston, New York, and Philadelphia]. N. Y.: Macmillan. 267 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
Rowland, Dunbar, editor. A symposium on the place of discovery of the Mississippi River by Hernando de Soto. Jackson, Miss.: Miss. State Dept. of History. 103 pp. \$2.50.
Stevens, Wayne E. The northwest fur trade, 1763-1800. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 204 pp. (11 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
Sullivan, James, editor. History of New York State, 1523-1927. 6 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co., 799 Broadway. \$42.50.
Vanderpoel, Emily C. N., compiler. More chronicles of a pioneer school from 1792 to 1833 [history of Litchfield, Conn., Academy]. N. Y.: Cadmus Book Shop. 388 pp. \$5.00.
Welles, Lemuel A. The history of the regicides in New England. N. Y.: F. H. Hitchcock. 139 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$5.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Baikie, James. The glamor of Near East excavation. Phila.: Lippincott. 348 pp. \$5.00.
Huelsen, Christian. The Forum and the Palatine. N. Y.: A. Buederhausen, 47 W. 47th St. 176 pp. (16 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
Procopius, of Caesarea. Secret history of Procopius. Chicago: P. Covici. 286 pp. \$20.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Andrews, George G. Parliamentary reform in England, 1830-1832. N. Y.: F. S. Crofts. 59 pp. 60 cents.
Figgis, Darrell. Recollections of the Irish war [1914-1921]. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran. 316 pp. \$4.00.
Foster, Sir William. The English factories in India, 1668-1669. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 356 pp. \$6.00.

- Friis, Astrid. Alderman Cockayne's project and the cloth trade: the commercial policy of England....1603-1625. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 510 pp. \$10.00.
- Hakluyt, Richard. The principal navigations....of the English nations. Vols. 7 & 8. N. Y.: Dutton. 409, 323 pp. \$3.00 each.
- Halévy, Elie. A history of the English people, 1830-1841. N. Y.: Harcourt. 372 pp. \$6.00.
- Hare, Rosalie, and Lee, Ida. The voyage of the *Caroline* from England to Van Drenian's Land and Batavia in 1827-28. N. Y.: Longmans. 322 pp. \$6.00.
- Walker, Eric A. A history of South Africa. N. Y.: Longmans. 635 pp. \$5.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Andrews, George G. The constitution in the early French revolution, June to September, 1789. N. Y.: F. S. Crofts. 78 pp. 60c.
- Rios, Fernando de los. Religión y estado en la España del siglo XVI. N. Y.: Columbia University Press. 114 pp. \$1.00.
- Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A. Outlines of European History. Part 2. From the seventeenth century to the present time [enlarged edition]. Boston: Ginn & Co. 886 pp. (14 p. bibl.). \$2.12.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Aereboe, Friedrich. Der Einfluss des Krieges auf die landwirtschaftliche Produktion in Deutschland. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press. 248 pp. \$5.00.
- Einandi, Luigi. La guerra e il sistema tributario Italiano. New Haven. Yale University Press. 533 pp. \$5.00.
- Jèze, Gaston P. A. and Truchy, Henri. The war finance of France. New Haven: Yale University Press. 362 pp. \$3.75.
- Poliakoff, Vladimir. Peace in Europe. N. Y.: Appleton. 96 pp. \$1.50.
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MISCELLANEOUS

- Coulter, Edith M. Guide to historical bibliographies. Berkeley, Cal.: University of California Press. 110 pp. 75c.
- Gann, Thomas W. F. Maya cities. N. Y.: Scribner. 256 pp. \$5.00.
- Peffer, Nathaniel. The white man's dilemma. N. Y.: John Day Co. \$2.50.
- Weatherhead, H. T. C. Short chapters of African history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 93 pp. 75c.

BIOGRAPHY

- Tyler, Alice F. The foreign policy of James G. Blaine. Minneapolis: University of Minneapolis Press. 411 pp. \$3.50.
- Lockridge, Ross F. George Rogers Clark. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 232 pp. \$1.20.
- Cleghorn, Hugh. The Cleghorn Papers,....the diary of Hugh Cleghorn of Stravithe, 1795-1796. N. Y.: Macmillan. 314 pp. \$7.00.
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- Mackinnon, James. Luther and the Reformation. Vol. 2. The breach with Rome. N. Y.: Longmans. 381 pp. \$6.40.
- Owen, John. The journals and letters of Major John Owen, pioneer of the Northwest, 1830-1871. 2 Vols. N. Y.: E. Eberstadt. 346, 367 pp. \$12.50 set.
- Who's Who, 1928 [English]. Annual biographical dictionary. N. Y.: Macmillan. 3,365 pp. \$16.50.

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- Edmonson, J. B. and Dondineau, A. Citizenship through problems for junior high school grades. N. Y.: Macmillan. 566 pp. \$1.60.
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- Green, C. A. The government of Missouri. N. Y.: Macmillan. 95 pp. 28 cents.
- Hsiao, Kung Chuan. Political pluralism; a study in contemporary political theory. N. Y.: Harcourt. 279 pp. (8 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Jones, Robert, and Sherman, S. S. The League of Nations, from idea to reality. N. Y.: Pitman. 229 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Munro, William B. The invisible government. N. Y.: Macmillan. 169 pp. \$1.75.
- Warnshuis, A. L., and others. The slavery convention at Geneva, September 25, 1926 [etc.]. N. Y.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. 67 pp. 5c.

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- What Price Church History? A. W. Nagler (*Methodist Review*, January-February).
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- Virginia Principles. Lyon G. Tyler (*Tyler's Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, January).
- The Rise of the Negro Magazine. Charles S. Johnson (*Journal of Negro History*, January).

- The Whys and Wherefores of the William L. Clements Library. Randolph G. Adams (*Michigan History Magazine*, January).
- The Catholic Contribution to the History of the Norse Discovery of America. William S. Merrill (*Catholic Historical Review*, January).
- Clio, Incorporated. Sam Acheson (*Southwest Review*, January). Hubert Howe Bancroft.
- The Mound Builders: Whence and When. Vernon C. Allison (*American Anthropologist*, October-December).
- Old Spanish Missions in Texas. Frances Scarborough (*Southwest Review*, January). I. San Francisco de la Espada.
- The Missouri River Region as Seen by the First White Explorers. Addison E. Sheldon (*Missouri Historical Review*, January).
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- The First Year of Printing in New York, May, 1693-April, 1694. Wilberforce Eames (*Bulletin of the New York Public Library*, January).
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- A Sponsor of the American Navy: Benjamin Franklin. Constance Lathrop (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, January).
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- The Washington Society of Alexandria. William B. McGroarty (*Tyler's Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, January).
- Squire Ames and Doctor Ames. S. E. Morison (*New England Quarterly*, January).
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- Abandoned Railroads of Iowa. Ben H. Wilson (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, January).
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- History of the Michigan State Federation of Women's Clubs (continued). Irma T. Jones (*Michigan History Magazine*, January).
- The Public Finances of North Carolina since 1920. Benjamin U. Ratchford (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, January).
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